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An abridgement of the first report of the Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching, published in 1956. The study, sponsored jointly by the Board of Education of Fairfield, Connecticut, and the Department of Education of the Yale University Graduate School, is basically concerned with the improvement of instruction in elementary schools through adequate staffing.

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YALE-FAIRFIELD STUDY

of ELEMENTARY
TEACHING



REPORT

1954

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YALE-FAIRFIELD STUDY OF
ELEMENTARY TEACHING

A cooperative project conducted by Yale University and
the Fairfield, Connecticut Public Schools and financed by
a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education

ABRIDGED EDITION
of the
REPORT FOR 1954-1955

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New York, 1956

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EDITOR'S NOTE

This is an abridgment of the first report of the Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching. It appeared in February 1956 in a limited, multilithed edition of 320 pages. Because of the continuing demand the present abridgment, including information deemed to be of interest to a larger audience, was printed for wider distribution. Statistical material has been reduced or omitted altogether, bibliographies left out, and much of the background material which describes techniques used in gathering data has been cut down. Nevertheless, the editor believes that teachers will find this abridged edition readable, useful and time-saving. We hope it will also interest that segment of the reading public concerned with the problems facing the teachers in the elementary schools. Educators who are especially interested in research will, of course, want to be familiar with the full report.

Burton P. Fowler

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Most decisions to teach are made in the high school years. The Future Teachers of America provides opportunities for high school students to have teacher-like experiences.

PREFACE

i.

The Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching is sponsored jointly by the Board of Education of Fairfield, Connecticut, and by the Department of Education of the Yale University Graduate School and with the cooperation of the Connecticut State Department of Education; and is financed by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The study has the active cooperation of the Citizens School Study Council of Fairfield and the Fairfield Education Association.

The Fairfield school system serves as a laboratory for the study of elementary school teaching and for experimentation in relation to the purposes of the project. A close and cooperative relationship with classroom teachers and school administrators has been established. A teachers' *Committee of Twelve* was selected at the beginning of the school year by the elementary teachers of Fairfield to represent them and to work directly with the staff of the Yale-Fairfield Study as an advisory group in planning activities involving teacher participation.

In the preliminary stages of investigation several areas in which background information was needed were marked out, and certain questions basic to the study and to the planning of experimentation were posed, among which were the following:

What is a defensible, modern concept of teaching?

How can the job of the elementary school teacher best be described and analyzed?

What are the generally accepted functions of the elementary school?

The answers to these questions were essential before sound and effective experimentation could be planned. A first step in seeking clarification of these problems was taken in a series of three conferences held during July 1954. Separate groups of highly qualified consultants were invited to participate in these conferences along with members of the staff of the study and representatives of the administrative staff of the Fairfield school system. In each conference a specific task was undertaken and conclusions were summarized.

The first conference was directed toward the development of a definition of the professional task of the teacher.

ii.

The second in this series of conferences utilized the services of a group of experts in the field of job analysis in business and industry.

The assignment undertaken by this conference was to assist the staff to develop methods of studying the elementary teacher's job. Job-study techniques used in modern industry were examined to see what they might contribute to the present study. A description of the General Electric Company's methods in studying supervisory positions was presented and copies of typical forms were made available for the confidential use of the staff. Although the industrialists themselves use rather minute time studies of certain factory jobs, they cautioned against attempting to use these methods in the study of teaching. They recommended procedures more similar to those they use in studying the jobs of supervisory employees, from foremen to division managers. This method starts with descriptions provided by the incumbents themselves.

The third conference based its study on three assumptions: (a) that the total education of the individual derives from many sources, (b) that the school has vital tasks in this total education, and (c) these tasks today need new clarification and definition. The group identified basic problems in defining the task of the school, i. e.:

What is the particular function of the school as compared with the many other agencies and experiences that educate?

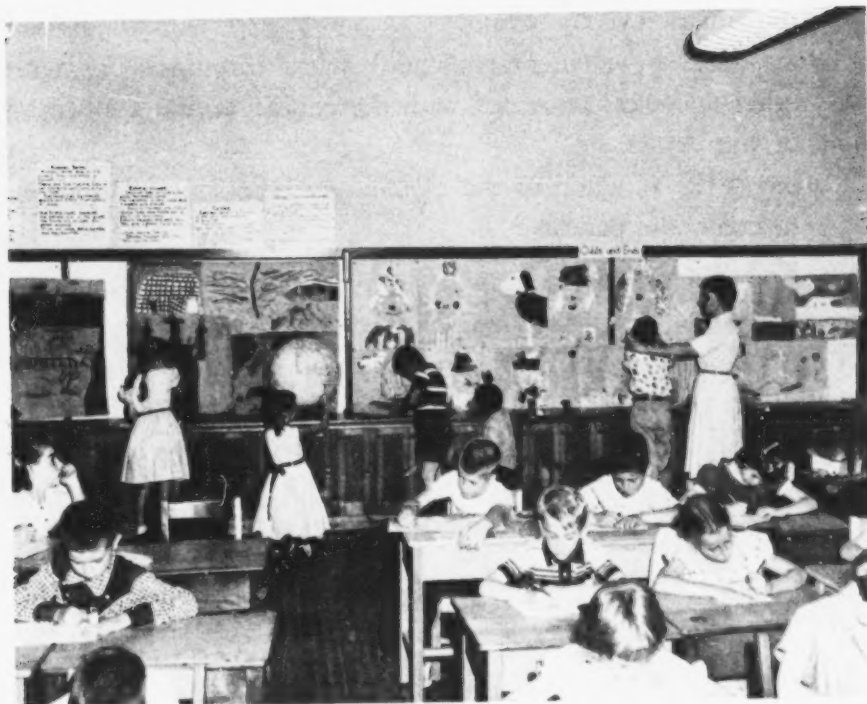
What is the particular function of the *elementary* school?

How do community needs, differences, and resources condition the function of the school?

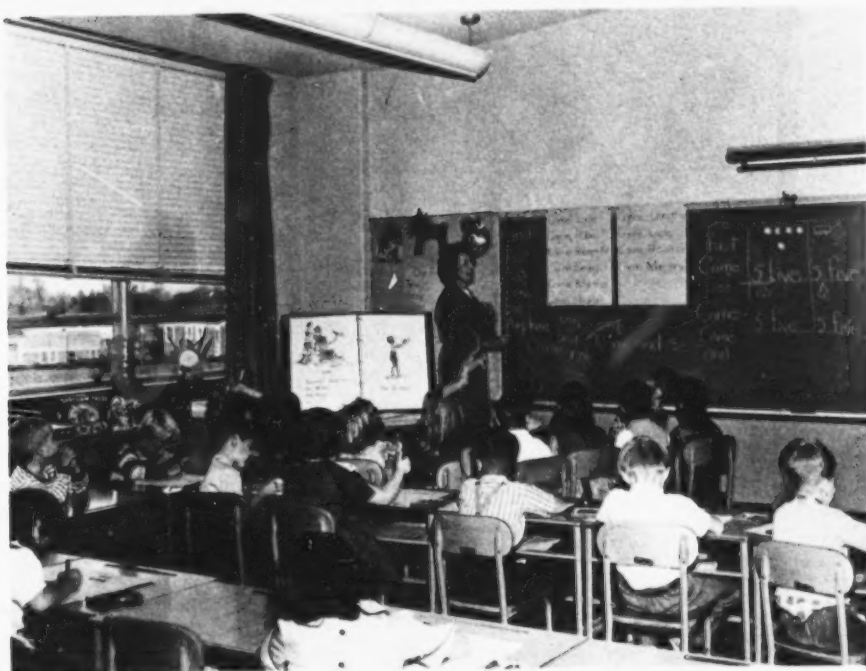
How does the elementary school share responsibility with other agencies concerned with the education and well-being of the child?

What is the function of the elementary school in relationship to home and parents?

A preliminary statement was drafted by the group and has served as a basis for subsequent detailed staff studies of commonly accepted objectives of elementary education and of the extent of sharing of responsibility for the attainment of these objectives between the elementary school and other educative agencies.



The teacher may be initiator, organizer, or director of an infinite variety of activities in the course of a day's work.



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The nation is faced with a shortage of teachers, with an increasing pupil population and with a rising tax burden. The purpose of this study will be to examine the existing school pattern and program, to determine how elementary teachers' time may be used to best advantage, how the load of the elementary teacher may be adjusted to make the work of the teacher more effective, more attractive to prospective teachers and more productive of results both to pupils and community.

In these broad, general terms the purposes of the Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching were originally stated. The study is basically concerned with the improvement of instruction through the adequate staffing of the elementary schools. From the outset the center of interest has been the enrichment of teaching and learning opportunities in kindergarten and the first six grades. Preliminary studies indicated that the first step toward this goal is through the better recruitment and retention of capable teachers, and that this can be achieved by improving the attractiveness of elementary school teaching to intelligent young men and young women who are seeking satisfying life careers.

The shortage of teachers for the elementary schools is both quantitative and qualitative. Assuming that the prevalent class size is to be maintained, approximately 60,000 more teachers than are available are needed annually. In round numbers 28,000 trained college graduates enter teaching each year. About twice that number, for one reason or another, leave the profession thus

creating about 30,000 vacancies. The growing enrollments demand at least 30,000 additional teachers each year. Unfortunately it is not always the poorest teachers nor the young teachers of least promise who leave teaching early, thus the quantitative shortage is compounded qualitatively by a persistent shortage of teachers of exceptional understanding and skill. In recognition of these and other facts, it was decided that the central purpose of the study would be to find an answer to the question: How can elementary school teaching be made more attractive to capable young men and young women as a life career?

First Steps

During the first month of the study conferences were held with committees of professional experts and the chief personnel officers of large industries. Many approaches to the problem were considered by these committees, and related questions were defined. It became apparent that the first steps in the study should be concerned with securing suggestions for making elementary teaching more attractive as a career by finding out:

1. What attracts those who have chosen to be elementary school teachers?
2. What prevents many young people from wanting to be elementary school teachers?
3. Why do many who prepare to teach fail to accept teaching appointments?
4. Why do many teachers leave the profession before enforced retirement because of age?
5. What do college seniors suggest to make elementary school teaching more attractive as a career to young people?
6. What do vocational counselors think would make elementary school teaching more attractive as a career?
7. What do experienced teachers suggest for making the job more attractive?

Studies relating to these questions as they are recorded in professional literature were critically examined, and questionnaires designed to supplement available information were sent to teachers-in-service, seniors in liberal arts colleges and in teachers colleges, college professors, and professional counselors. State commis-

sioners of education and professors of school administration throughout the country were asked to supply any information which they had collected relating to these questions but not available in published documents. Very little apparently had been done, and except for the expression of personal opinions these sources did not prove to be fruitful. The results of these investigations are recorded in Chapter II of this report.

From the literature, from the testimony of school officials, from our own data, and from many conferences with teachers-in-service as well as young people who were considering teaching as a career it soon became apparent that our paramount problem was that of finding some way of relieving teachers of the many nonteaching chores or duties which had become associated with teaching, while, at the same time, retaining for teachers the informal associations with pupils which contribute to the development of a good climate for teaching. It was also recognized that it was necessary to continue to satisfy a wide range of community demands which had become a part of the general concept of the functions of the elementary school in our complex society.

In short it was evident that there have grown up in the schools many nonteaching duties for teachers, duties worthy in themselves but of such amount and character as to consume much school time and to draw heavily on the energies of teachers. Furthermore, the growing complexity of school organization with the educational machinery necessary to keep it operating smoothly has imposed many tasks upon teachers which the respondents to our questionnaires characterized as "baby-sitting," "housekeeping," "clerical," "uninspiring," "unchallenging to first-rate minds." It was generally agreed that with our present scheme of school organization and our contemporary concept of the school's functions provision must be made for the discharge of many duties which are a part of school life but which in a technical sense may be no part of teaching. At one level the problem arises out of the conflict between the desire of capable young people with first-rate intelligence to devote their energies to creative teaching rather than to the performance of numberless routine tasks. At another level the protest against the job of elementary teaching is in its confining character — the long day,

without a moment's break, in direct association with groups of children.

It is apparent that the job of the elementary teacher must be redesigned if relief is to be provided so that elementary teaching will become satisfying enough to attract and hold good teachers. Several proposals for providing this relief were considered: (1) the elimination from the school program of all duties not directly relevant to the central objectives of the elementary schools; (2) the centralization of many whole-school activities so as to remove them from individual classroom responsibility; (3) the use of superior "floating teachers" to assist with supervision and to relieve teachers in their classrooms from time to time as need arises; (4) the further reduction of class size; (5) the use of classroom assistants for teachers. All of these devices have their merits, but a careful analysis of them convinces us that a proper and varied use of teaching assistants promises to provide the types of relief for teachers which, in the long run, will prove to be the most satisfactory.

The first two possibilities, namely reducing and centralizing school duties, appear to be largely administrative in character and should be constantly under consideration by the administrative and supervisory staffs of the schools no matter what the organizational scheme for teaching may be. There is no doubt that improvement is needed here, but it can best be brought about by a reorganization of the program based on a study of situations by responsible authorities in individual schools. The fact remains, however, that only a partial solution to the problem confronting teachers can be expected from such measures. Floating or unassigned teachers have been used with great success in many school systems. The device undoubtedly improves supervision and provides teaching services as emergencies arise, but it does not give the kind of day-by-day relief which teachers need and certainly desire.

In situations where class size is excessive, relief of a sort can be provided by organizing smaller classes; but even with small classes if the teacher has no assistance she must still go through all the dreary processes involved in nonteaching duties required

in large classes and is tied to the group without a moment's relief throughout the long day.

It seems, therefore, that the most promising type of experimentation will be one which involves the use of teaching assistants or aides, not necessarily with the idea that fewer teachers would be employed or that class size would be significantly increased. Rather it is thought that by providing teachers with assistants to relieve them of routine, nonprofessional duties their resources can be conserved for more effective teaching and the services of really masterful teachers can be made available to more individuals and larger groups of students. The hypothesis with which the Yale-Fairfield Study is primarily concerned, therefore, is that with the concept of the teacher's job lifted to the high level of professional responsibilities, requiring in their fulfillment the use of imagination and creative intelligence, elementary teaching will per se be more attractive as a life career to young people of first-rate ability. And with talented as well as devoted teachers in the schools the general quality of schooling will be significantly upgraded.

Organization of the Study

A careful study of the detailed history of early experimentation with assistants for teachers forced the conclusion that if a desirable present-day use of assistants is to be discovered it must be sought not merely as a means of relieving teachers of irksome duties nor as a temporary device to get along with fewer teachers during an emergency in the schools. Rather it must first be sought as a way of improving the quality of schooling for American boys and girls. This means that due consideration must be given to present-day conceptions of the nature of the teaching process and of the objectives of the elementary school. The history of experimental ventures with teaching aides clearly shows that to proceed without sensitive regard to a broad concept of the contemporary elementary school's task would be shortsighted and wasteful because it would be foredoomed to failure.

Consequently, for our own guidance in planning experimentation provision was made in the Yale-Fairfield Study for review of current thinking with regard to three fundamental questions:

1. What is teaching?
2. What teaching is needed by children of the ages of five to eleven years?
3. What is the school's responsibility for this teaching?

Reviews of these areas are to be found in Chapters V, VI and VII respectively.

It is apparent from these reviews that there is no aspect of child growth and development, no area of child life, school life, or community living for which the school has no responsibility whatsoever. It follows, then, that the fundamental curriculum problem which must be faced by the schools is not so much one of objectives as it is one of priorities. Even though there are no areas with which teachers are not concerned, there certainly are areas in which they have major concern and areas in which their concern is minor indeed. Since there seem to be no areas of school life for which teachers should have absolutely no concern, it is reasonable to conclude that there should be no complete delegation of responsibility from teachers to assistants.



Supervising children at lunch hour, a job that often falls to the teacher.

Having determined the school's major responsibilities as well as its shared responsibilities, and having recognized that all pupil experiences have or may have curricular value with reference to one or more of the objectives of the school, there still remains the possibility that many of the things teachers have to do to keep the institutional processes going may have no particular significance so far as the curriculum of the school is concerned. It seemed necessary then to raise the question: What is the character of the activities in which teachers actually engage? This question is answered in Chapter VIII.

Although it was possible to describe many school activities which are only incidentally related to teaching when conceived of as the direction of learning, it was extremely difficult to say with any precision just what parts of the teacher's day contributed most to the realization of the major objectives of the school, and it was still more difficult to identify the parts that were exclusively concerned with the objectives which were of only minor concern to the schools. In other words, in planning experimental programs in the use of teaching assistants it seems almost impossible to draw a sharp line of demarcation between the responsibility which the teacher must assume and that which can be wholly delegated to assistants with safety.

With this information at hand three questions came into focus:

1. Should young people be selected and trained as assistants or should the work of assistants be planned as an essential part of a professional training program? Or is there a place for assistants of both types?
2. How can young mothers who are college graduates be effectively used as assistants while qualifying for certification as teachers?
3. How can volunteer service to the school be recruited, screened, and trained?

Against this background of need, of opinion, of history, and of descriptive data the plans for experimentation in the Fairfield schools were made. During the late spring and summer of 1955 four experimental projects were planned in accordance with the findings listed in this report. They are now (1956) in their

second year of operation in the Fairfield schools. Briefly described they are:

1. A two-year training program and evaluation of services of teaching assistants.
2. A four-year program of teacher education in which students serve as teaching assistants while pursuing a college course at the Danbury State Teachers College.
3. A three-year part-time program involving school participation for the professional education of liberal arts graduates in the community.
4. In conjunction with the P.T.A. a plan is being developed for the selection, training, and certifying (unofficially) of volunteer workers in the schools.



The teacher supervises loading of school bus.

CHAPTER II

WHAT WOULD MAKE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHING MORE ATTRACTIVE?

This chapter is composed of three parts. Part I is directed to the questions: How do teachers feel about their work? and What do they suggest to make the job more attractive? Part II is in answer to the question: What influences the decision to become or not to become an elementary school teacher? For this answer the replies of teachers, of college seniors, of college professors, and of vocational counselors were examined. These reactions were solicited and studied because a description of the factors influencing decision has implications for making elementary school teaching more attractive as a career. In Part III the question is: What are the implications of the losses of prepared teachers? Here are considered both those who graduate from college prepared for elementary teaching but who do not go into teaching, and those who leave teaching positions before retirement age.

Part I. What Do Teachers Say About Teaching?

1. Introduction: The elementary school teacher

Before we consider how elementary school teachers feel about their work, what they like about it, and what they suggest to make it more attractive, we present some descriptive data about elementary school teachers as a group.

Age. Judging by the Yale-Fairfield United States sample, the median age of teachers in the elementary school is about 39 years, varying from 36 in the North to 44 in the South. The median age should be expected to vary with the proportion of the staff who are recent appointees, and that proportion probably varies

greatly. In Fairfield, for instance, where the majority of the elementary teachers have been appointed within the last five years the median age is about 30 years.

Sex. According to the Biennial Survey (1950-52) 12 per cent of elementary school teachers are men. The ratio varies with the size of the community. In cities 9 per cent are men, in towns 10.5 per cent are men, and in rural areas 13.5 per cent are men. The ratio of men to women has not changed much in the last ten years, but with rising standards the ratio may increase. The N.E.A. Research Division (1955) reported that 13 per cent of all the students who are completing preparation for elementary school teaching are men. The per cent who are men varies a great deal from state to state, and varies from 10 in the South to 19 in the West.

Education. Over two-thirds of elementary school teachers are college graduates. The N.E.A. 1955 sample places the percentage at 68. In the Yale-Fairfield sample 73 per cent report college graduation. The percentage reported by the N.E.A. Research Division (1955) varies from 51 in the North to 76 in the West. The percentage varies greatly from state to state. At one extreme nine out of ten and at the other extreme only one out of four are college graduates.

I.Q. Since a large percentage of elementary school teachers are college graduates and the percentage is increasing rapidly, I.Q. data concerning teachers college graduates are not a bad substitute for data concerning elementary school teachers.

Traxler (1946) compared teachers college students with liberal arts college students. Converted into Otis I.Q.'s the American Council Examination scores for the ten-year period 1935-44 showed a teachers college freshman average I.Q. of 109, and a liberal arts college freshman average of 113. The teachers college average is equivalent to the 70th centile for the general population and to the 40th centile for liberal arts college freshmen. There are large differences among liberal arts colleges as well as among teachers colleges.

The averages mentioned above are for freshmen. They would be higher for graduates. According to Wolfe and Oxtoby (1952) the average I.Q. of college graduates is about 120.

Socioeconomic status. Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (1944) reported that many teachers in the East and South came from lower-middle-class families, and that in the Middle West and West many came from lower-class families. Clark and Burke (1955) concluded from a review of research that the social class origins of teachers are lower-middle class. Some pertinent data supplied by Wade (1954) for one college are reproduced here because they apparently agree with the above observations as to central tendency and supplement them in showing the distribution.

From upper-class families	5 per cent
From upper-middle-class families	19 per cent
From lower-middle-class families	46 per cent
From upper-lower-class families	21 per cent
From lower-lower-class families	9 per cent

2. How do elementary school teachers feel about their work?

Teachers were asked, "What do you like most about teaching?"



Collecting money, selling stamps are time-consuming tasks.

Their most frequent free answers on the Yale-Fairfield questionnaire were:

I like children.

I like to see their progress.

I like to feel that I am making good citizens.

These are the satisfactions teachers get out of teaching. Even the third on the list rates high as a source of satisfaction. Coffman (1951) asked 420 teachers, "Do you feel that being a teacher gives you an opportunity to make a significant contribution to society?" Ninety-one per cent answered Yes.

These are the things that reward. Are they rewarding enough to make teachers reasonably well satisfied? They were asked, "Are the conditions under which you work satisfactory?" and asked to check Yes or No concerning ten aspects of this question. The percentages checking follow:

	% Yes	% Not checking (uncertain how to answer)	% No
Living conditions?	90	5	5
Community attitudes toward teachers?	83	4	13
Opportunities for recreation and social contacts?	80	3	17
Your grade assignment?	96	1	3
Class size and composition?	72	2	26
Respect shown teachers by pupils?	90	3	7
Materials and supplies?	80	1	19
Help and support from supervisors and administrators?	83	6	11
Do you feel secure?	93	3	4
Are demands on your time reasonable?	73	8	19

There were some statistically significant differences among the subsamples. The smaller the community the better the community attitude is toward teachers. The smaller the community and also the younger the teacher the less satisfactory are the opportunities for recreation and social contacts. Teachers in the 25-35 age group, kindergarten teachers, teachers in the cities, and teachers in the South complain most about class size. Materials and supplies were also more frequently reported as inadequate in the South. But such variation is minor against the general picture

of satisfaction on the part of elementary school teachers throughout the country.

On the Yale-Fairfield questionnaires the following suggestions were offered by elementary school teachers to make the work more attractive:

	<u>% suggesting it</u>
1. Relieve the teacher of some of the non-teaching duties involved	48
2. Reduce the size of classes	23
3. Raise salaries	19

The liberal arts college and teachers college graduates made the suggestion for relief with equal frequency and nearly twice as often as it was made by the non-graduate. The liberal arts college graduates suggested smaller classes more frequently than did the teachers college graduates. Higher salaries and more adequate supplies were suggested about twice as frequently by teachers in southern states as by teachers in northern or western states. The older the teacher the more frequently more specialized help was suggested.

Implications of Part I

What then should be said in conclusion on the basis of the collected teacher reactions?

1. The suggestion which stands out is that teachers be relieved from the pressure of nonteaching duties. Twice as many teachers suggested it as that class size be reduced or that salaries be raised. The prominence of this suggestion in the Yale-Fairfield questionnaire data is supported by the Hedlund and Brown study in the state of New York. It is impressive not only in the percentage of teachers making the suggestion but in the length of the remarks which they offered in support of their recommendation. As to detail, the implications are not clear. The replies were not in a form which would permit us to list the nonteaching duties in order from most to least objectionable. The order appears to vary with the teacher.

2. The suggestion for smaller classes which was next most frequently offered is like the plea for relief in that, when justified, it is justified as a means for making teaching more effective as

well as more attractive. For instance, one young woman who suggested smaller classes wrote as follows in answer to another question: "One constant source of a feeling of frustration and of guilt, I as a teacher have, is that with a class of 30 children I am unable to find the time to spend with individual children that I know I should spend if each child is to gain the maximum benefit from his or her educational experiences. It is impossible for me to meet the needs of all these children." Her recommendation for smaller classes is clearly a plea for an opportunity to do more effective teaching, or to put it selfishly, remembering the nature of the teachers' satisfactions, it is a plea for a more rewarding kind of teaching.



Teachers spend valuable minutes in mechanical tasks.

3. Elementary school salaries are still low in comparison with the importance of the work, the amount of preparation required, and the respect with which the elementary school teacher is regarded.

4. In the local situation, if elementary school teachers are not a fairly satisfied group, this should not be dismissed as a general phenomenon. Such a situation calls for concern on the part of the community, its board of education, its superintendent, and its principals.

5. Because of the shortage of fully prepared teachers the most obvious way of implementing the suggestion for relief from non-teaching duties (assuming that they are a school responsibility) is by the use of assistants with less professional training. An implication for the Yale-Fairfield Study is therefore that experimentation in the use of aides be carried out in Fairfield. The above review of data further indicates that this should be done in a way not to interfere with the desires of teachers for more opportunities of working with individuals and small groups and not to interfere with the prospects for higher salaries. Since the data do not indicate what duties are best assigned to aides, this is a matter for experimentation. Hence the pattern should vary with the school, with the teacher, and with the aide.

Part II. What Influences the Decision to Become Or not to Become an Elementary School Teacher?

Answers were obtained from 839 experienced teachers and from 1,066 teachers college or school of education seniors who were preparing for elementary school teaching. The 1,066 seniors are a sample of the 35,000 such seniors in the country (N.E.A. Research Division, 1955) of whom 44 per cent are in a "north" embracing 50 per cent of the population, 35 per cent in a "south" embracing 35 per cent of the population, and 21 per cent in a "west" including 15 per cent of the population of the country. Within the sample 42 per cent were from the North, 42 per cent from the South, and 16 per cent from the West. Among all such seniors in the North 14 per cent are men, in the South 10 per cent are men, and in the West 19 per cent are men. For the sample these percentages are 15, 9, and 19.

Reasons for deciding to become an elementary school teacher.
Both experienced teachers and seniors were asked the following question:

Why did you decide to become a teacher? Check all appropriate items. Check major considerations twice (✓✓). Check minor considerations once (✓). Add any reasons not listed here and any comments you wish to make on the reverse side of this sheet.

The reasons are rearranged below in the order of the frequency with which they were double-checked by the teachers. Shown in the second column is the rank of each reason as based upon the double-checking of the seniors.

Rank by Teachers	Rank by Seniors	Reason for deciding
1	1	Desire to work with young people
2	3	Nature of tasks involved in teaching
3	2	Concept of social service involved in teaching
4	8.5	Family attitudes toward teaching
5	7	Accessibility of teacher-training institutions
6	12	Other members of family are teachers
7	6	Esteem in which teaching is held as a vocation
8	4	Working conditions—length of teaching day, vacations
9	5	Security provided other than economic
10	11	Type of preparation required
11	14	Family situations, financial, health, social
12	8.5	Opportunities for promotion, tenure, retirement provisions
13	17	Expediency—there seemed to be nothing better to do
14	16	Undesirability of alternatives to teaching as a vocation
15	13	Good beginning salary
16	15	Attractiveness of teaching as stop-gap employment while preparing for something else
17	10	Because teacher shortage guarantees employment

Elementary school teachers as a group should not be thought of as feeling that they are in a work for which they had no real interest. The experienced teachers were asked, "Did you choose teaching as a first preference, or did you feel that you had no real alternative?" Eighty-seven per cent replied that they chose teaching freely as a first choice.

The competing vocations. The seniors in training were asked "What other vocations did you consider?" The four answers most frequently given by the women were: secretarial work by 28 per cent, nursing by 21 per cent, none by 18 per cent, and social work by 13 per cent. The corresponding replies by the men were:

business by 26 per cent, engineering by 13 per cent, none by 11 per cent, and accounting by 10 per cent.

Who influences the decision to become a teacher? Asked whether this decision was made independently or influenced by parents, friends, teachers, or guidance counselors, the senior women checked as follows:

Influenced by: parents	27%
friends	12
teachers	23
counselors	6
none	53

The senior men checked with the following frequencies:

Influenced by: parents	11%
friends	20
teachers	25
counselors	12
none	51

It is safe to conclude that men attribute more influence to friends and to counselors, and that women attribute more influence to their parents. The differences remained statistically significant between the men and a subsample of women matched with the men for regional location, as to when they began to consider teaching, and whether or not they had doubted the wisdom of their decision to become teachers.

The waning parental influence which was revealed in an earlier section in the reasons given for deciding to teach appears also in the answers to the question "Who influenced your decision?" Fifty-four per cent of the experienced teachers attributed influence to parents, as compared to only 25 per cent of the seniors. The trend is further confirmed in relation to the age of the experienced teachers. Of those over 35, 65 per cent attributed influence to parents, of those 25-35 the per cent is 52, and for those under 25 it is 40.

An increase is shown in the frequency with which guidance counselors are said to have influenced the decision to teach. The trend is not so pronounced, but seniors more frequently so checked than did the experienced teachers, and relatively more of the

young experienced teachers checked such influence than did the older ones.

"Have you ever doubted the wisdom of your decision to become a teacher?" The women replied to this question: Yes, 33 per cent, No, 67 per cent. The men replied Yes, 46 per cent, No, 54 per cent. The doubt most frequently had by the women was, "Am I fitted or capable of doing good work?" They felt the importance of the work and wondered whether they could live up to their own ideals. This sort of doubt was expressed by 57 per cent of the third who had had doubts. Twenty-seven per cent asked "Is this work what I want?"; 8 per cent asked "Is the salary a sufficient reward?" and 3 per cent had had doubts because of the nature of their preparatory experiences. The men who had doubts more frequently had them because of "the low salary" and less frequently from the question "Can I become a good teacher?"

"When did you decide to be a teacher?" A Yale-Fairfield question to seniors preparing for elementary school teaching was worded as follows: "When did you first consider becoming a teacher?" Of the 824 young women replying 27 per cent answered, "In elementary school"; 43 per cent answered "In high school"; and the other 30 per cent replied "After high school graduation." The modal time of earliest consideration is while in high school.

Below is a quotation from the statement on the back of the questionnaire returned by one of the seniors, a young woman who began early to consider teaching:

I received my inspiration to be a teacher in the third grade. My teacher frequently allowed me to lead the reading and spelling classes, a task I enjoyed very much. My mind was made up to be a teacher. As I got into the higher grades I liked school very much and definitely wanted to go to college. Throughout grammar school and junior high school I was given many more opportunities to lead the class. I found that I enjoyed getting up in front of them. Talking to teachers and friends, I was encouraged to follow my goal...I have never doubted my choice and have never thought of considering another vocation.

Those who began late to consider teaching more frequently reported doubting the wisdom of their choice; they more frequently reported being motivated by the beginning salary and the working conditions. Also more frequently, they reported being influenced by friends, and more thought of teaching as a temporary form of employment.

A trend toward later consideration is clearly apparent in the percentage distributions for experienced teachers and for seniors:

	Teachers	Seniors
In elementary school	30	24
In high school	40	42
After high school graduation	30	33

Further, where 42 per cent of teachers over 35 began to consider teaching in the elementary school, only 15 per cent of those under 25 did so.

As might be expected teachers who are graduates of liberal arts colleges did not consider teaching as early as did the teachers college graduates.

What prevents the college student from deciding to teach? Three hundred college deans (*New York Times*, February 16, 1947, p. 18), asked why students do not go into teaching, replied:

1. Poor salaries
2. Community restrictions
3. Community pressures
4. Heavy teaching load
5. Arbitrary administrators
6. Certification technicalities
7. Inferior community status
8. Low professional prestige.

Replies of liberal arts college seniors on Yale-Fairfield questionnaires show that the three most influential reasons are:

1. Less desire to work with young people.
2. Less concern to render a social service.
3. More concern for salary.

The influence of teachers. Thirty-eight per cent of the teachers in the Yale-Fairfield sample said teachers had influenced their decision to teach. This is presumably because of admiration and

liking for the teacher, because in answer to another question the same per cent of the group checked Yes, that they had developed an early interest in teaching because of admiration of one of their own teachers.

Of the seniors in teachers colleges and schools of education, the per cent attributing influence to teachers was for men 25, for women 23. Those who developed an early interest in teaching more frequently attributed influence to teachers. Teacher influence may be waning, but it is still a substantial factor in deciding to be a teacher.

The role of guidance counselors in recruitment. With the guidance counselor exercising more influence upon the young person's consideration of teaching as a vocation, educational planners are going to look to the counselor in their recruitment efforts. One of the Yale-Fairfield questionnaires was therefore sent to the accredited vocational counseling centers in the United States in order to secure information with which to describe the role of the guidance counselor.

The result which was most emphatic was one which came not in answer to any question asked but by way of a protest and concern which was either explicit or implied in about 20 per cent of the replies. The concern was to make clear that the guidance counselor is neither an adviser nor a recruiting officer. Asked "Under what circumstances do you suggest to advisees that they seriously consider teaching as a career," they were more anxious to make their attitude clear than to answer the question as it was intended. They wrote, "whenever it's appropriate," or "when the test scores indicate it," or "when the client's expressed interests warrant it," etc. Several wrote, "we do not have 'advisees'." Another wrote "I never 'recruit' for teaching or any other field."

This concern we are glad to pass on so that no one will look to guidance counselors to exercise a recruiting function. Counselors, especially the more nondirective ones, take pride in confining their assistance to counselees to helping them decide by helping them know themselves and the situation better. What conception of the elementary school teacher's job and qualifications does the counselor have?

First, the counselor thinks of four qualifications for the teacher

(counselors mentioned them with about equal frequency):

1. Intelligence enough for the required training
2. Some evidence or promise of liking to work with young people
3. A humanitarian or social service rather than mercenary motivation
4. Good adjustment, or at least the absence of serious personality difficulties and physical defects.

How do liberal arts college professors advise students about teaching? Another person who must play an important role in recruitment is the liberal arts college professor. Either the liberal arts college must prepare teachers or it must provide applicants for graduate preparation or both. At present few liberal arts college seniors are planning to teach in elementary schools. Of the 623 seniors mentioned above only 5 per cent had such plans.

Although this percentage suggests that only a small fraction of liberal arts college graduates become elementary school teachers, already there are many such graduates employed. Of the teachers returning Yale-Fairfield questionnaires 25 per cent described themselves as liberal arts college graduates. The per cent was 22 in the North, 29 in the South, and 33 in the West. The per cent is increasing. It is 17 among teachers over 35 years of age, 33 for teachers 25-35, and 41 for teachers under 25.

The following conclusions were drawn from the replies of college professors:

1. It is a strong majority opinion among liberal arts professors that only the best students should go into college teaching. The reasons given for this were:

- a. The only opportunities for teaching "my" subject are at the college level.

- b. In order to enjoy his work the superior student needs the added intellectual stimulation which comes from working with the more highly selected and more mature college students.

- c. The top teaching salaries, though low as compared to earnings in other professions, are higher in colleges than they are in public schools.

2. High school and elementary school teaching are considered appropriate for average or better-than-average students.

3. With very few exceptions liberal arts professors are opposed to the idea of their poorest students going into teaching at any level.

The following two comments typify the weight of opinion expressed on the returned questionnaires.

I consider none but the best students to be qualified for college teaching; and I think that such persons would not be satisfied with a career requiring constant contact with immature minds.

On the secondary and elementary level, while scholarship is important, aptitude for handling young people is equally important. An excellent student may be unfitted, while an average student may be well fitted. The poorest students should not teach.

Summary of Part II

Experienced elementary school teachers say they decided to become teachers because they wanted to work with young people, because they thought they would enjoy teaching, and because of the concept of social service inherent in teaching. Starting with such motivation it is no wonder that they are a reasonably well-satisfied group nor that they describe their satisfactions as reported in Part I.

Trends were noted toward less family influence and toward greater attractiveness of salary, working conditions, opportunities for promotion, tenure and retirement provisions, and security, and toward less decision merely on the grounds of expediency. From the latter trend it should not be inferred that many experienced teachers had the work wished on them. Eighty-seven per cent of them said they chose teaching freely as their first choice.

Secretarial work, nursing, and social service for women and business, engineering, and accounting for men are the chief competitors with teaching.

Concerning the decision to be teachers, men attribute more influence to friends and to counselors, women to their parents. Although parental influence is declining counselor influence is increasing.

Many students have doubts concerning the wisdom of their choice: women whether they will be able to do the work well

enough, men because of the salary. Those who decide early have fewer doubts. About a quarter of the women but fewer of the men began to consider teaching while still in the elementary school. More students decide to be teachers while in high school than before or after.

Liberal arts college students who consider teaching but reject the idea do so because they have less desire to work with young people than is had by those who decide to teach, because the concept of service inherent in teaching makes less appeal to them, and because they are more concerned about salary. Here also the pattern is complex. The above three differences are singled out for mention because they seem to be the largest motivational differences between those who decide to teach and those who decide not to teach.

The student's decision to become a teacher is influenced in about one case out of four by some of the student's teachers.

Counselors should not be expected to recruit for teaching. Their role is to help students decide by helping them to know their own qualifications better and to know better what the various kinds of work are like. They are aware of the kinds of motivation which are appropriate for teaching and that interest in children and child development is characteristic of the elementary school teacher. They show by their suggestions for making elementary school teaching more attractive to young people of first rate ability that they are quite familiar with the school situation. Their rating of elementary school teaching as to its desirability is what might be expected from the prestige ratings described in Part I.

Liberal arts college professors advise none but their best students to go into college teaching. They much less often advise their best students to become high school teachers and seldom advise them to be elementary schools teachers. They are more apt to advise an average student to choose public school teaching. Very few think it appropriate for their poorest students to become teachers even on the elementary school level.

The requirements for certification and the type of preparation required do operate somewhat to prevent students from deciding to teach and to reduce the attractiveness of teaching as a career.

Some General Implications of Part II

1. Educational planners should watch the picture of supply, demand, and salary for secretarial work, nursing, and social service work for women, and watch the opportunities in business, engineering, and accounting in competing for men as elementary school teachers.

2. If a larger proportion of men is wanted in elementary school teaching salary must attract them. But if men are so attracted care should be taken to see that those admitted are well qualified and appropriately motivated.

3. The best single basis upon which to decide whether or not to become an elementary school teacher is whether or not the young person enjoys teaching-like experiences with children. Considerations of salary cannot nor should not be ignored, and elementary school salaries need to be raised. They are not commensurate with the importance of the work nor with the amount of preparation required. But those who are helping students to decide about teaching should advise them to make their decision primarily on the basis of probable enjoyment and only to a lesser degree on the basis of salary and prestige.

4. Administrators, teachers, parents, and counselors should cooperate to provide and to utilize opportunities for teaching-like experiences with children.

5. The use of teacher-aides should be investigated in relation to the improvement of teacher preparation.

Part III. Losses of Prepared Teachers

Teachers who prepare but do not teach. Of the approximately 35,000 students who graduate in June prepared for elementary school teaching about 7,000 do not begin teaching in September. The N. E. A. Research Division 1955 Report gives the per cent of prepared men failing to teach as 34.9 per cent and of women as 18.3 per cent. What becomes of these potential teachers? In the same report there is a description of a follow-up of a 48 per cent sample of the June 1954 graduates who were not teaching in November 1954.

For 11.9 per cent of the men and 9.3 per cent of the women no information could be obtained. Some of these missing mem-

bers of the group undoubtedly entered teaching in another state. It has been assumed for this report, however, that if they had been located they would have been distributed as were those who were located.

On this assumption the losses of men college graduates were:

- 16.1 per cent to military service
- 9.5 per cent to further formal education
- 1.7 per cent still seeking employment as teachers
- 7.6 per cent otherwise gainfully employed or seeking to be.

For the women the losses were:

- 10.2 per cent engaged in homemaking
- 2.0 per cent continuing formal schooling
- 3.0 per cent still seeking positions as teachers
- 3.1 per cent otherwise gainfully employed or seeking to be.

Military service, continued schooling, and failure to locate a position do not reflect an unattractiveness of teaching in comparison with other careers. The losses to "otherwise gainfully employed or seeking to be" and "homemaking" do. The loss to other kinds of work, 7.6 per cent for men and 3.1 per cent for women, or about 380 men and 930 women, is a loss to elementary school teaching of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent of the prepared college graduates. The loss to homemaking is more than twice as large. According to the above estimate over 3,000 young women who are prepared for teaching do not begin teaching upon graduation because of homemaking.

What leads elementary school teachers to stop teaching before retirement? In the Yale-Fairfield questionnaire to experienced teachers were the following three questions.

- a. Do you expect to limit your professional work to a few years? (This question was directed only to those who had taught less than five years.)
- b. If you answered "No," do you plan to remain in elementary classroom teaching as a life career?
- c. If your answer is again "No," would you be disposed to change it to "Yes" if:
 - () Teaching salaries were better
 - () You could be relieved of routine details usually associated with elementary teaching

- () Opportunities for promotion within classroom teaching were greater
- () Teachers were given more genuine opportunities for participation in decisions affecting the whole school
- () Teachers were freer to develop their own programs of teaching

Twenty-three per cent answered Yes to question 16, thus indicating their intention to leave after a few years. Of the other 77 per cent, 50 answered No to question 17, thus indicating an expectation of leaving but not within the next few years. Together these groups constitute 73 per cent of those with five or fewer years of experience. That left only 27 per cent planning to make elementary school teaching a life career.



Teachers need time to study and evaluate ways to strengthen and enrich the curriculum.

Implications of Part III

1. In Part I elementary school teachers were described as wanting relief from the pressure of nonteaching duties and as wanting smaller classes and higher salaries. It is here pointed out that zeal for improvement of the elementary school should not lead anyone to speak of conditions as being so bad that teachers are being "driven" from the profession. It will be remembered in Part I that teachers, while seeing need for improvement, were at the same time found to be reasonably well satisfied. In Part III we have estimated that other kinds of gainful employment prevent only 3 per cent of those prepared from entering the ranks and "drive out" not more than 3 per cent of employed teachers.

2. Homemaking is a more attractive competitor for prepared teachers than all kinds of gainful employment put together. Should the school compete with the desire of young women to marry and raise a family or plan constructively to use the desire?

3. If the latter course is adopted, teaching should be described to young women as a career that fits in well with homemaking, a good preparation for child rearing, a career to which a mother could return bringing with her a valuable contribution of experience. Many young women do not need to be told this, as their comments on questionnaires show. One teacher wrote: "I am looking forward to marriage. I feel that teaching is a wonderful preparation for child rearing. I believe I will be a better wife and mother because of this experience. I believe that a married woman can be a very good teacher."

4. Conditions should be favorable for young women teachers to meet eligible young men in the community, and the prospective teachers should be informed in career literature that such conditions obtain.

5. Contact should be maintained with the 15,000 prepared teachers per year who turn to homemaking, so that they may be informed after a period of years that they would be welcomed back into teaching.

6. There should be opportunity for college-graduate mothers whose home responsibilities are lessening to prepare for teaching.

7. In a program of experimentation in the use of aides to re-

lieve teachers of some of the pressure from nonteaching duties, and also designed to contribute to the improvement of teacher preparation, there should be a place for the preparation of mothers for teaching.

CHAPTER III

AN AMERICAN EXPERIMENT WITH ASSISTANT TEACHERS

1800-50

The Significance of Monitorialism in American Education

The monitorial system of instruction was a device for educating a large number of children very cheaply. It responded directly to a need of the late 18th and early 19th centuries — the need for a way in which the benevolent impulses of the upper classes toward the untaught children in the new industrial cities could be satisfied without too great cost.

The monitorial system became a part of the creed of the liberal of the early 19th century. It became the educational gospel to many reformers of the day, and in the United States Lancaster was its prophet.

The plan was promoted by humanitarians and philanthropists. The workers and poorer classes did not force its establishment. The social, economic, and political leaders of the time inaugurated the scheme to provide a cheap education for a vast number of the unschooled. They brought about the adoption of the monitorial system not merely because there were too few teachers but because they did not wish to pay the wages of a sufficient number of teachers, either by private subscription or by taxation. Perhaps the most astute monitorialists thought to forestall the demands for a more costly common public school by providing a gaudy but cheap organization.

The system disappeared because of the attitude of the middle and poorer classes; the philanthropists did not will its disappearance. The workers fought for enfranchisement and public education at the same time, and when they achieved the right to vote parties and politicians were forced to give them the educational

procedures they demanded. For a time, especially during the decade 1810-20, the people accepted the monitorial system, extending gratitude to those who managed it, but in the 1830's their dissatisfaction with the plan increased and their approval was not to be won by modifications of it.

The mass of people insisted upon its abolition partly because of experience with the system itself. This experience made many citizens realize the need for education. It made them wish for something beyond cheap and shallow procedures.

The lay opponents of the system wished it abolished largely because it was closely associated with the pauper idea of education. Many educationists of the time, however, opposed it and furnished ammunition to its lay opponents by criticizing its pedagogical inefficiency.

The most significant contribution of monitorialism to American education was its role in the establishment of public schools in the centers where monitorialism flourished. Directly out of monitorial schools, originally accepted and sponsored because they promised a cheap yet effective training, evolved free public schools.

The essential factors related to the development of the monitorial system in the United States and the significance of the plan in the evolution of the American public school system may be presented in tabular form:

1. The system responded to a need for the education of citizens that grew directly out of the economic and social conditions of the 19th century.

2. The upper economic classes in England and America, in co-operation with benevolent educators and reformers, fostered the plan.

3. It began as a pauper system and retained the taint of charity in almost all forms and places.

4. Its primary appeal was its use of unpaid assistants to the masters. The pedagogical excellencies ascribed to this scheme were rationalizations, for the most part concocted to make its cheapness more readily acceptable.

5. It was imported into the United States by groups similar to the ones that had fostered it in England.

6. The group that introduced monitorial schools into the United States frequently retained control of them through private school societies. The societies held the control even though they were often given state financial support.

7. The social classes for whom it was designed had little part in its introduction.

8. Every publicity agency of the period was used to extend the monitorial idea to every section of the United States, and so it became known in every part of the nation.

9. The idea became so well known that scores of schools were established, in every populated part of the United States, upon Lancaster's plan, a plan which allowed one master to teach several hundred children at one time through the aid of monitors.

10. The enthusiasm for this educational panacea ran so high that many secondary schools were organized on the plan, and laws were passed making it obligatory in some cities and states.

11. It was about 1830 that there occurred a definite change in the opinion of educators in regard to the pedagogical efficiency of the system.

12. The real force which caused its downfall came from those it served. With the rise of the common man, universal manhood suffrage, labor parties and unions, and labor periodicals a savage attack was unleashed on the institution.

13. By 1835 the system and the publicity it had received had helped to generate in the lower economic classes a strong desire for good schools and to accustom them to the sacrifices schools involved.

14. The evidence seems clear that free public schools might have been considerably delayed in several important centers had not the monitorial system been available for use as an opening wedge. Monitorial schools were approved by the public and paid for by public funds long before other types of schools could have received such support, largely because monitorial schools were known to be inexpensive.

15. The evidence from these centers also shows how genuine public schools slowly but surely evolved out of monitorial schools.

16. The monitorial school played an important part in the beginnings of teacher training in this country.

CHAPTER IV

THE BATAVIA PLAN CONTEMPORARY EXPERIMENTATION IN THE USE OF ASSISTANT TEACHERS

Part I. The Batavia Plan

During the latter part of the 19th century and the first quarter of the 20th century a great deal of experimentation was carried on in the development of schemes of school organization designed to promote the individualization of instruction. Notable leaders were Preston Search, superintendent of schools in Pueblo, Colorado, and Frederic L. Burk, San Francisco State Normal School. Some of the experiments like the one in North Pueblo involved the use of assistant teachers, but this was not always the case. Emphasis was placed upon individual work and individual progress with less attention to group work and group progress. Advancement was entirely individual and based on rapidity (or slowness) of mastery by pupils of assigned units as such mastery was revealed by individual examination. There were no formal report cards. The progress of each student was reported to parents during periodic visitations in the home or by note to the parents. There were no promotions at the end of the school year. And each child began his work in September where he individually left off in June. The best conceived, most widely used in this country and abroad and most persistent of these plans was Helen Parkhurst's Dalton Plan. Interest in individualized instruction was supported by the psychological research and philosophical thinking of the day. The problem of individualizing teaching within the group context was one of first importance. It was in this setting that the Batavia Plan was developed. It should be noted, however, that the Batavia Plan originated as a means of

meeting a local situation and by accident rather than by design was developed into a "plan" to be adopted by other school systems.

In 1898 there existed in Batavia, New York, a situation not too unlike many to be found in public schools today. One oversized classroom had too many pupils for one teacher to handle. As there was no practicable way to partition the room, Superintendent of Schools John Kennedy suggested using two teachers in one room. One teacher would handle the group recitation and one would take care of all individual instruction at a table located at the side of the room.

At first the suggestion was received with some skepticism by the members of the Board of Education. But on second thought, perhaps seeing a way to save money by not partitioning the room, the board enthusiastically adopted the suggestion.

In Batavia two teachers were used where any class had more than fifty students. Kennedy and other advocates felt that the plan would succeed only if there was a definite division of responsibilities between the two teachers. When there were less than fifty students in a class only one teacher was employed, and she devoted one-half of her time to hearing group recitation and the other half to individual instruction.

The individual instruction was not just for the slow students. It was often used to help the bright ones forge ahead at an accelerated pace. Kennedy did not feel, however, that the bright pupils should be helped on work advanced beyond the existing level of the class recitation. If the bright pupils could go ahead on their own, it was all right with Kennedy. But he insisted that they should not receive help if they ran into difficulties. The plan seemed to have worked so well that within a few years it was extended to the entire Batavia system and adopted by many communities throughout the United States and Canada.

Many leading educators endorsed Kennedy's plan. William Bagley, G. Stanley Hall, and the New York State Department of Education were strong advocates.

The plan was not without its opponents, however, and though Kennedy felt that it had gained much popularity it never was

widely accepted. Sometime prior to 1932 the plan was discontinued in Batavia and elsewhere.

Rigorous evaluations of the plan seem not to have been made. Advantages and disadvantages claimed for the plan, however, were frequently listed. The lack of reliable evaluation and the interest at the time in current studies of class size may have contributed to the abandonment of the plan. Advantages, as claimed by advocates of the plan, were:

1. The level of group achievement was advanced.
 2. All students were ready for promotion when they succeeded passing New York State promotion tests. In a sense, there were no failures requiring pupils to repeat grades.
 3. Student interest was greatly increased.
 4. Discipline was significantly improved.
 5. Economy in the building program was achieved.
 6. Daily attendance was increased and there were fewer drop-outs.
 7. Students developed more independence.
 8. Bright students did not have to set their pace as determined by slow ones.
 9. Homework was not necessary.
 10. There was less strain on the teachers.
 11. A systematic plan for providing individual attention without undermining the graded-class system was achieved.
- Disadvantages, as seen by opponents of the plan, were:

1. The strong possibility of friction between the two teachers working in the same class.
2. Students come to rely too much on the teacher when help is easily available.
3. The "average child," which is nonexistent, determines the standards of evaluation.
4. The emphasis is too much upon individual work and not enough upon group work. (Even Kennedy insisted that the whole class should move as a "solid phalanx.")
5. Average results are made the goal.
6. Group recitation is too frequently disrupted by the individual attention to pupils.

Part II. Contemporary Experimentation with the Use of Teaching Assistants

By all means the most significant contemporary experimentation with the use of teaching aides is that being conducted in Bay City, Michigan, in cooperation with the Central Michigan College. The experimentation has been going on for two and a half years and two reports have been issued. These reports may be had by addressing Dr. Charles Park, Director, Special Studies, Central Michigan College, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan.

In the first weeks of the Yale-Fairfield Study a letter was sent to the elementary supervisors in more than five hundred school systems asking them to supply any information they had about the current use of assistant teachers. Fully 75 per cent of the replies received reported no such experimentation, and a significant number recorded resolutions never to resort to such practices. About 20 per cent described plans used by the schools to supply practice-teaching opportunities for nearby teachers colleges.

The important facts revealed by the exploration of contemporary experimentation with the use of teaching assistants are (1) the infrequency with which anything at all is being done, and (2) the fact that in most instances the use of assistant teachers is conceived of as a temporary expediency to relieve a critical situation. There seems to have been very little interest in careful evaluation of the plans, or of developing them as a means of improving instruction in normal situations and for the relief of teachers so as to make their tasks more tolerable. It is conceivable that the proper professional use of teaching assistants may be more promising in both respects than the more common practices of reduction in class size and the multiplication of specialists as members of the instructional staff.



The continuous task of the teacher—informing, explaining, showing how, with groups and with individual learners.

CHAPTER V

THE PROFESSIONAL TASKS OF THE TEACHER

Introduction

This chapter of the report attempts to make more clear the professional functions of the practicing teacher. The frame of reference is the elementary school, but the functions will apply to all levels of teaching. The work of the teacher at times seems boundless; teachers do many, many things. What follows is an oversimplification.

This outline is offered as a tentative estimate of what may reasonably be expected of teachers in our schools today. The value of any such document as this lies in the stimulation it might give to all of us to re-examine what we are doing as teachers and to clarify for ourselves what we mean by teaching. Any progress which we make might be helpful in redirecting the training of teachers in our colleges and universities; we might also be making a contribution to a much needed in-service training program for teachers in our public schools. Still another possible contribution which such an outline may make lies in the increased sensitivity which we may bring to the lay public about the involved functions required of our teachers. With this increased awareness may come a greatly increased respect for what we are trying to do and what we are accomplishing inside the limitations now imposed upon us.

Within the profession we have been greatly helped by the ferment about education and about teaching. We have been helped by the psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, physiologists, and pediatricians. We have also been aided by the vigorous public debates and writings which have focused upon public and private

education from the preschool level to the postgraduate. The dire need for more teachers, more classrooms, more supplies and equipment have tended to arouse a national concern about the requirements for teaching. Much has been happening at all levels: national, regional, state, and local.

Are we ready to make a definitive answer to the question: What are the professional tasks of the teacher? We are seeing clearly that our culture is changing quite rapidly. We see also that our social institutions must necessarily adapt themselves to significant trends of social development. Our answer to the question, therefore, is that we can outline the professional tasks of the teacher in the light of our present understandings of the present needs of a changing society, of the present needs of individuals, and of the present needs of the educational profession as we see them.

Our formulation of the professional tasks of the teacher will be shaped by the values we cherish, by our knowledge of the capabilities and limitations of man, by our awareness of what it is possible to achieve with the resources at hand. We should make clear that we are *not*, at this time, describing "the excellent teacher." We are trying to sharpen our vision of the job which confronts *all teachers*. What are the tasks of the teacher in these difficult times? What is it that teachers do as they work with children? What is expected of them? What are their functions?

First, however, let us look at some of the background facts. We have been told of the tremendous increase in the numbers of children now attending our schools. This increase in numbers brings along with it a significant change in the characteristics of the pupil population. We have been informed that one out of every five mothers with children of school age is employed outside the home. We know that in one year (1948-49) more than one out of every five children changed his residence. We have learned that one out of every eight children was not living with both parents. The statistical facts are living, daily, experiences for the classroom teacher. They have a bearing upon our concept of the tasks of a teacher. They change the nature of the job.

The technological changes have been truly phenomenal. A large pharmaceutical manufacturing concern has stated that five

years ago it did not manufacture ninety per cent of the products which it now sells. Vocational training — on the job — has come to be a commonplace, and even at the professional levels many industries have extensive training and educational departments.

A distinguished, Nobel Prize-winning scientist has said that it is becoming almost impossible for any scientist to write a book in his own field. In the year or more which it would take to produce the manuscript the march of science would have invalidated a significant amount of the content. Specialists in science have almost been forced to publicize their findings as articles in professional journals.

The continuing increase in knowledge, produced by our thousands of specialists working in their relatively narrow fields, almost guarantees an ever changing frontier of specialized, factual information. It is practically a truism to state that all textbooks and all tests are out of date. It is next to impossible to keep up with the development of knowledge.

This is a tremendous influence on our concept of the functions of a teacher. At one time we could say that teachers taught "the facts," the truth, but with this accelerating development of knowledge we cannot, even at university levels, maintain that we can do the job adequately. The character of knowledge development has changed. When we realize that nearly all teachers are required to teach a number of different subjects we see more clearly the impossibility of being expertly informed and competent in each.

What about values? Do they change too? The evidence on broken homes, on working mothers, on mobility, on church-going, on TV viewing, on increased attendance in schools at all levels is an indication of significant changes in values. What we now seek from political parties and their candidates differs from what we wanted in the thirties. Our people in increasing numbers are moving out of the larger metropolitan areas into the suburbs. Our attitudes toward business, large and small, are in this process of change. Our dispositions toward the organized labor movement are different from what they were before the great depression. Our outlooks upon the role of the military in our national life have changed. Our attitudes toward racial segregation are undergoing revision. It can truly be said that our values, along with our

specialized knowledge, are in a process of change, accelerated change.

This speed-up in change affects us all. It raises serious questions about the functions of teaching in the last half of this century. Some of these questions relate closely to our conceptions of human nature, of the state, of learning, of growth and development, and of the role of the school in our society.

A single example may illustrate the interrelatedness of rapid sociological change with our conception of the role of the teacher. Within our generation, and for the first time in man's history, children are exposed to a tremendous array of ideas, beliefs, emotions, attitudes, impulses and feelings, hopes and aspirations, purposes and activities, all of this by means of travel, television, radio, books, and participation in life. It seems safe to say that before they are ten years old they will have come into contact with, will have been exposed to, will have experienced much, much more than they can hope to understand in a whole lifetime. Why?

For one reason, as was stated, they have been exposed to so much! Life today is very complex. A second reason is that a life span is not very long. But perhaps the best reason is that we do not recognize as subject matter what is *in* the heads and hearts and minds of children. We fail to clarify this backlog of experience, and we fail to see that unless we do, our efforts to add to the child's store are more apt to be distintegrative than integrative. It is a truism to say that everyone must educate himself. If we are not careful it will also be a truism to say that we cannot expect much help from schools and from teachers in this task of receiving or securing an education.

Is learning to be associated with the discovery of meaning? Then those who help children to learn must be concerned with meanings which the children are acquiring. How does a teacher attempt to clarify and to enlarge meanings? Is this a part of teaching? If so, how large a part?

What is the role of authority in the learning and teaching processes? Is it to be mainly centered in the *person* of the teacher, or principal, or superintendent? Is it to be mainly centered in the



Teachers help children understand meaning and the use of language.

authority of purposes which the children have helped to formulate? Is the authority we prize one that is informed by reason?

What do we mean by basic information and the fundamental skills? Basic for what? Fundamental to what? If a primary aim is the development of meanings for the child we shall think that the most important function of information is to *inform attitudes, opinions, or beliefs about the world*. In other words we acquire information to enlighten our attitudes about and interpretations of the world we live in. Must teaching take this into account as it aims to give prominence to subject matter?

How can values best be treated in the teaching and learning processes? If values either help to meet needs or are instrumental in meeting needs, must teaching then be concerned with the identification of symptoms of needs and values? Are the teacher's values the ones to be examined and to be learned? Or must there be a shared examination of what is valued by all the children and by the teacher too?

How can teaching help youngsters to think more clearly? What

do we need in the way of procedures for identifying strengths and weaknesses in thinking? How can we best help children to be more adequate in their thinking?

What is the role of the teacher in helping children to become effective contributors to group living? What can teaching do to develop socialization without at the same time losing our high regard for the dignity and worth of the individual?

What role shall the teacher play in her teaching which contributes to the quality of community living? Is there a quality of school and community integration which should be fostered in our daily teaching?

The Scope of the Professional Work

As we see it today, the teacher has a thousand-and-one things to do to preserve working relationships with children, with colleagues, with administrators, with parents, with lay people, and with himself and his family. Notwithstanding the multitude of duties, notwithstanding the evident interrelationships of them all, we shall attempt to make a classification; and in listing our categories we shall *seem* to be separating these functions and to be treating them in isolation. We shall want it understood that we do not believe that treatment of them in isolation is at all adequate. We do not teach by compartments nor do we live in that fashion. We act as integrated human beings, and we express a synthesis of all of these things at any single moment in time.

If, however, we are to direct attention to certain aspects of the profession, if we are to highlight some of the functions, if we are to abstract from the thousands of things those which seem to give a unique quality to the teaching profession, we may be forgiven for the compartmentalization of our thinking as it is represented in a classification that relates to teaching.

We see twelve major categories dominating the profession. These twelve functions seem to us to be required of all teachers in our elementary schools. We see these as very important aspects of one single job: teaching. We list them here not in order of importance but as the several aspects of the big job. They must be looked at in isolation now and then, but they must be looked at most of the time as parts of a single whole.

1. The teacher's job involves organizing, initiating, directing, to the end that the objectives of public education shall be translated into activities carried on in the classroom.

2. One very important aspect of the teacher's job is associated with informing, explaining, and showing how.

3. In order for learning to proceed effectively the teacher must help to establish a psychological climate, a wholesomeness in relations, a stimulus for activity which will allow learning to go ahead.



The teacher knows that learning depends on the security a child finds in being able to cope successfully. This means time, patience and individual help.

4. A very important part of the teacher's job is to help young people clarify their thoughts, clarify their feelings, clarify their aims, clarify their purposes, clarify their beliefs and interests and attitudes.

5. In our public schools one of the most important jobs confronting a teacher is his contribution to the unification of groups in achieving the aims of the school. To know how to make group life more zestful and productive for the promotion of growth and development is an indispensable part of the teacher's work.

6. All of our teachers have responsibilities associated with developing closer relationships between the school and the community. There is involved the intelligent use of community resources, the effective and expeditious use of human resources, and the building of wholesome relationships which will have lasting effects on our national development.

7. As teachers interact with children over periods of time they come to have "hunches" or hypotheses which imply multiple causes at work and which are influencing the learning of individuals in groups. Every teacher has need to make diagnoses respecting individuals in groups and to try these hypotheses in action. It is an ever recurring function of teaching.

8. In our public system of education every teacher is involved in the process of evaluating the work of individuals and of groups and of making reports to parents, to children, to other teachers within the school, to other schools, and sometimes to industry. This seems to be a necessary function and one that is present in every situation.

9. With respect to the elementary school particularly, almost every teacher has a classroom of his own. For this he must assume responsibilities associated with upkeep, with maintenance, and with certain requirements dealing with effectiveness so far as successful learning is concerned. This housekeeping is often a burden and conceived of as a chore, but it is everywhere regarded as one of the necessary requirements of the job of teaching.

10. In addition to those responsibilities which a teacher has in direct association with his own groups of children he has some that are associated with the wider setting of the whole school. The teacher has obligations with respect to assemblies. He has an obligation to do his share of committee work. He may have responsibilities connected with bank collections, the lunchroom, the distribution of milk or orange juice. He may have responsibilities associated with maintaining and preserving public school property, with the behavior of children in classroom and on playgrounds. These responsibilities to the school as a whole are necessarily a part of a teacher's job.

11. A very important part of a teacher's work involves the development of materials for the curriculum. Associated with this function is the study of form catalogs, putting materials on the blackboard, choosing books and workbooks, planning the day's work, envisioning instruction where it is needed, and many other such activities which are related to the choosing of and the production of learning materials for the children.

12. Finally, and in addition to all of these, the teacher has responsibilities associated with his profession and his personal life. It is expected that the teacher will continue reading in his own field and a variety of others. It is expected that the teacher will carry on or otherwise be interested in research. It is expected of teachers that they will join professional associations and will attend meetings which have bearing upon their professional work. It is considered a sign of achievement when teachers accept responsibilities on city, state, regional, or national committees which are working toward the improvement of the profession. Ordinarily teachers are encouraged to continue some academic work in institutions of higher learning. It is expected also of teachers that they will live a rather full and rich personal life, that they will participate in many of the affairs of a community—not as a teacher but as an adult person living in that community and in the ways that other adults participate. It is presumed that he will take a more active interest in a few community concerns. It is assumed that he will function as a mature and thoughtful person, that he will have friends, that he will entertain, that he will travel now and then, and in many other ways participate in a richer kind of living.

There may be serious doubt about the adequacy or comprehensiveness of this listing. There may be doubt that some of these may properly be called teaching at all, in the sense, perhaps, that a person not trained as a teacher might carry on some of the functions equally well. There may be doubt about the possibility of keeping these things separated long enough to give them special treatments. The task, however, will be attempted, and in the following pages each one of the categories will be expanded.

The Professional Functions of Teaching

Initiating, organizing, directing.

There is a whole host of activities associated with this function. To launch the work of the period or of the day teachers find it necessary: to order supplies and materials; to develop time schedules; to set up units of work; to make decisions about what shall take priority; to see to it that individual children are at the nurse's office when they should be, in the lunchroom when the designated time arrives; to work with special resource people when that is needed. It is becoming a more common practice to include children in much of the planning that is necessary to carry on school life. With children participating the teacher helps the groups to formulate rules of procedure in individual and group cases. With children participating under limits that are made clear decisions are made about daily schedules, about written work, oral work, and many other activities. In practically all of them a discerning teacher helps children to see alternatives, helps them to examine these alternatives in terms of resources, requirements, and consequences. As a general rule the children look to the teacher for leadership in this function of organizing, initiating, and directing. They look to him for clarification of the important values which can be realized. Nevertheless they also like to help create the values which will guide their own school living, and it has come to be recognized as part of current school practice to have children learn how to plan — by planning; to learn how to achieve important purposes by planning a program directed toward the achievement of those purposes.

Informing, explaining, showing how.

Where there is an atmosphere of friendliness and a desire for learning, there is also a tendency on the part of children to ask many questions. In starting new work of any kind there is an obligation on the part of every teacher to inform children what it is all about and to explain some of the alternatives which lie ahead. From the earliest years and on through graduate school there are situations where students want to learn certain skills and quite frequently this involves demonstration or a "showing how" process. This matter of informing and explaining and

showing how is one of the difficult arts of the profession. It tests the powers of the teacher to communicate with students. It is very necessary to use language which is appropriate to the age level, to use examples which are within the experience of those who are present. It is necessary to tie up the new with what is old in their life's span. In this dynamic process the teacher is almost continually noticing the facial expressions of the children with whom he is communicating. He is sensing the appropriateness of what he is doing. He makes the necessary repetitions and modifies these repetitions in such ways that they do not seem repetitive, and thus decreases the chance of boredom. The teacher who carries this task on well explains only enough to make things clear and does not try to have the children absorb a lot of information which may be quite irrelevant to the resolution of the immediate question. The teacher *offers*, and often tends to offer rather less than to overdo the job, but real genius lies in offering just enough to meet the situation.

Developing good classroom morale.

As the children and the teacher interact with each other they are building some kind of classroom atmosphere. They are establishing a kind of psychological climate for learning. As this morale or rapport or atmosphere contributes to the effectiveness of learning, one says that it is good.

When we are about to learn something that is indeed "new," the very newness of the situation represents a threat to our security. Moreover, if the situation is one which involves others and the success or failure of our learning becomes public knowledge, at once the threat to personality is increased. Teachers therefore have the job of initiating new situations, of developing new learnings, and at the same time they must be adept in minimizing fear of failure and maximizing hope for accomplishment. To do this almost simultaneously is part of the art of teaching and seems to be a requirement in all group situations where there is continuing contact as there is in our public classrooms.

One feature of this task is somehow or other to help children feel that they are important and almost indispensable members of the group; that they are missed when they are absent and that

they are prized when they are present. Teachers need to share with children the feeling that all children are good — and that while good children sometimes do bad things, children themselves are good and worthy of deepest regard and respect.

Clarifying feelings, beliefs, thoughts, etc.

Our great country has many cultures within it. Our country does not have one tradition; it has many. Our country is made up of people from all of the countries of the world. Our country is represented by many faiths. Our social institutions are in large measure autonomous, and our children as they live and grow come into contact with these different social institutions. Our children meet many different teachers. They read many different books. They listen to many different radio programs and look at many different television shows. They interact freely with different generations. They are exposed to the influences of family, the church, the school, the government, business, and on and on.

There is available much evidence which suggests that our culture is confused, that there are trends that are not readily apparent. We have evidence that children are confused and that they have difficulty orienting themselves to the world in which they live. They are sometimes worried about problems which they think are unique to themselves. They are uncertain about where they stand on many issues. They are unsure about their beliefs. They lack knowledge of themselves and are sometimes perturbed by it. This creates a setting in which teachers have found it necessary to carry on what we have here called "the clarifying process."

Where issues are indeed controversial, where answers as such are multiple and vary according to cultures or groups or creeds, it is not possible for the teacher to be dogmatic with respect to her own ideas of the matter at hand. In ever so many areas of life there is this division in point of view. In fact there is a multiplicity of views about many things. Under such circumstances no one answer suffices. Often the teacher's role is to have different children give their different views and to have these views discussed and to help the whole class to see that we differ in those matters and that we cherish those differences quite often; that on other occasions

we seek ways of finding an accord which at the moment is not possible.

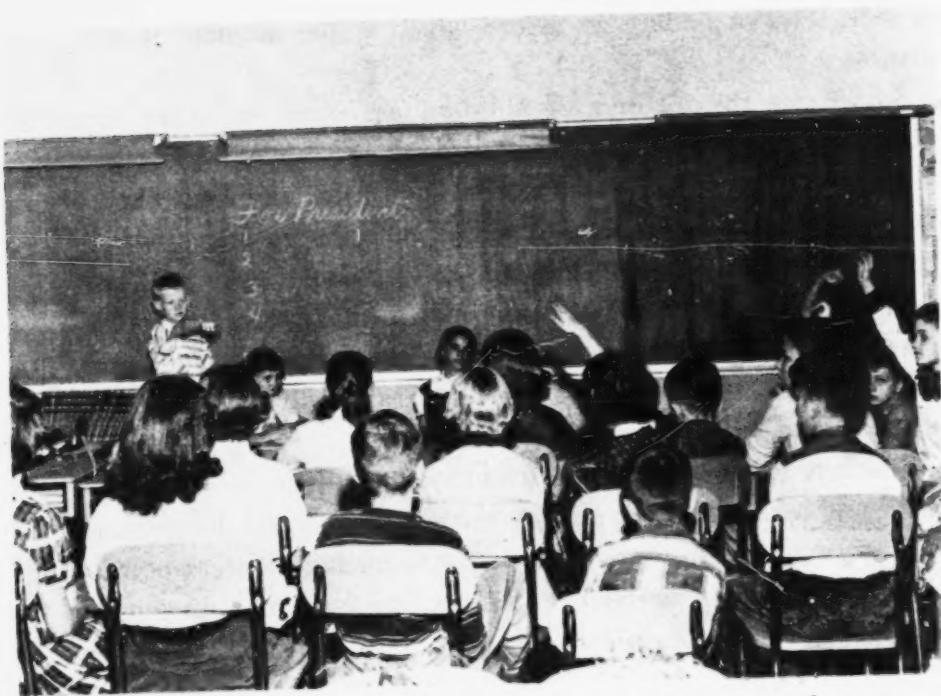
Sometimes the feelings of children are confused. They are ambivalent toward parents and toward teachers and toward other children, and they worry about this fluctuation in mood. Sometimes teachers help children to see when they are angry, when they are discouraged, when they are unhappy, and when they are joyous, glad, and proud. The assumption is made that as teachers help young people to see more clearly what their feelings are, these children come to have a greater awareness of self and become more secure about themselves.

Teachers sometimes have different views written on the blackboard and ask children to analyze the similarities and differences. As they engage in this task of closely scrutinizing different points of view the children are being encouraged to clarify the differences and similarities which do exist.

Group-unifying functions.

Many of us can well remember the dark days and the darker nights of the great depression. Millions of workers were unemployed, and many of them exerted tremendous efforts to find gainful work in a society where — for the time — work was not available. Did we as a people need the things which workers could produce? We needed them very much, but our society was indeed *sick*. It could not organize itself for productive action. And as our society was a sick society, so was this sickness visited upon many of our citizens.

They felt unneeded, unwanted. They were ashamed in the presence of their family, their relatives, their neighbors. Many of these unemployed lost a sense of social purpose and with it some of their self-respect. Many moved away, hoping to find a better life in a new and presumably different situation. Some became bitter and later hostile. They vented their bitterness and hostility on certain individuals or groups who were in responsible positions; or they helped to organize a movement which would destroy the very foundations of a free society. Some individuals expressed their discontents in gambling, drinking, and petty squabbles of many



The teacher plans experiences in organized group work.



The teacher in seeking the causes of behavior may use the special resources of school health and guidance personnel.

kinds. Some reacted with despair and submissiveness to their sad lot. As the days passed they became ever more helpless and hence more dependent and less inclined to do anything about it.

Others developed illnesses, which are now thought to be of the psychosomatic kind, and found some personal satisfaction in their disability for work that was nonexistent. Leadership of many kinds came into being and often worked at cross-purposes and sometimes for destructive purposes. Some families known to us as solid reliable pillars of society became infected with ideas which a few years before would have been rejected out of hand. A kind of contagion was in the air, and as with most contagions relatively few were immune.

Morale was bad; productivity was very much lowered; individuals lost faith in themselves and in each other; respect for some of our great traditions diminished; values were called into question, doubts about the "verities" increased. The nation was losing its "groupness," its solidarity, its devotion to a pattern of living. We seemed to be on a dark journey into a land that promised little indeed.

From this near catastrophe in our society what can we teachers learn about classroom morale, classroom productivity, and classroom patterns of living? May we think of schools, or classrooms, as miniature societies? Perhaps the analogy is far from accurate, but examination of the two may be helpful in illuminating our major tasks in carrying forward *group work* with children and youth.

Could we say that the work has to be useful? socially valuable? carried on in a manner which respects the individual and the group? allows for differentiation of function in the sense that the workers will have opportunities to choose those tasks which make use of their latent abilities? allows them some chance to learn new skills and new understandings?

One of the outstanding problems which faces young teachers is that ordinarily associated with the terms *discipline* and *control*. When these terms are employed the visual image is usually that of a teacher working with an entire class. The experienced teacher, having worked his way through the initial problems in this area, comes to see that the discipline which is most to be prized is the

self-discipline which students might develop. The control most to be desired is the intelligent control which students exercise over themselves while they are at work. The experienced teacher becomes aware that this self-discipline and this cooperative self-control are apt to emerge when the group has had a chance to clarify purposes and to see quite clearly what they are doing and why they are doing it, and have had some say in establishing the problem and the methods of work. As problem and procedure are established there is a certain flexibility about it. This flexibility or permissiveness is limited sharply by those purposes and the chosen methods. When the behavior of children conflicts with purpose or obstructs it, when what they are doing is irrelevant to the goals agreed upon, it becomes a relatively easy matter to help them see the discrepancy between what they are doing and what they themselves are trying to achieve. This problem of working with an entire group is the highly intellectual problem of clarifying the problem and clarifying procedures and then entertaining that flexibility which sees the achievement of the aims. Under certain circumstances noise and some confusion may be necessary to carry out the methods agreed upon to achieve certain goals. This kind of noise is not rowdiness nor does it reflect lack of discipline or lack of control. It is the kind of noise associated with production, of results for the task at hand.

Relating school and community.

One of the more obvious ways in which teachers relate school to the community life is reflected in the curriculum. In the earliest years teachers rightfully take field trips and excursions which involve children in the growing appreciation of the community. Reading is often related to the opportunities for increasing one's knowledge of community functions. When children choose projects on which to work both teachers and children frequently make use of the community resources. It is now a commonplace in American schools that problems in a community will receive some attention in the schools.

As the bonds between parents and teachers and children are strengthened it is not at all uncommon for the school to notice some of the primary concerns of parents and to give attention to

these concerns during the school day. The P.T.A. is a very common way for eliciting some of the problems of parents and for working out with parents the goals of education and the means for achieving them. It is now widely felt that parents have a tremendous stake in our adventure in public education.

Our schools contain all of the children of all of the people — with very few exceptions. They come to us from all economic levels, and it is a fair expectation of all parents that their children will be treated fairly, that there will be no discrimination. Where only a few parents are influential, where their pressures tend to control school policy, it will surely be found that many other parents are not being considered in the process. We need to do much more along this line than we have done so that we can be quite sure that *representative* groups of parents will be considered where it is quite impossible for all of them to be in the process.



The teacher may assume whole-school activities in the area of safety.

We have not always utilized the resources of parents and lay people in the community to the extent that we could. As we come to know parents better we shall find that many of them can contribute materials and services to the schools which will add to the effectiveness of education. They may aid the teacher in some of the tasks of teaching which are here discussed. They may be of

great help in safety patrols, in assembly programs, in our dramatic work, in certain tutoring situations, in the solution of problems which require more adequate school facilities and supplies, and in various phases of club work.

Similarly, teachers as individuals and groups are frequently in positions to make effective contributions to the life of the community. They may act as speakers at meetings. They may function as vigorous assistants in community enterprises. They may take a keen interest in the out-of-school activities of children and parents during school time and during the vacation period.

On the curriculum side teachers may make frequent use of local speakers to clarify some of the local problems, to inform children about what is going on, and to talk with children about some of the community problems which relate to the lives of children.

Sometimes a community exploits the schools through a very large number of activities in which classrooms are used to collect money, to sell tickets, to express a single point of view, etc. Only as school people and lay people work together on these problems can principles be developed which will be more valid guides for just what to do when such a situation develops.

As parents and lay people come to see the scope of the teacher's job and what is being done in the schools there is good reason for believing that unwarranted attacks on public schools will be minimized. In fact there is a strong probability that the schools will receive greater support than they have in the past to carry on the difficult work of educating.

Sometimes our curriculum and our methods do not seem to be interrelated to the lives of these children and their experiences in the community. Our texts sometimes are far removed from life itself. Under these circumstances the teacher frequently needs to help children see connections between this schoolwork and life as it is now being lived. This is a method for developing concern, and where the teacher's concern and the child's concern meet a most important condition for learning has been met.

Sometimes our classrooms represent almost wholly a reading and-writing situation. Materials other than pencil and paper are infrequently employed. One simple test of our concern about the community lies in the extent to which the materials frequently

produced and utilized by community people are also present in our classrooms. When this is done children learn how to manipulate, how to conceive, how best to utilize many different approaches to life, to life's work, and to life's leisure. As additional materials are employed more opportunities are provided for interacting with a variety of parents who make use of these different kinds of materials in their own lives. Moreover a wide variety of materials allows for a wide area of abilities to be developed, and children who may be less successful with reading and writing may indeed gain great satisfaction and status out of their superior talents in other media.

We should be cautious about our interpretation of the word "community." This concept is probably as large, and only as large, as the extent to which we can identify with people and their problems. There is a sense in which our preoccupation with illness might include the whole world as *community*. There will be other concerns which may be sharply limited to the neighborhood in which the school is located. It follows that in speaking of school-community relations we are using the term with great flexibility. We know that teachers will adapt the term to a much wider use when that seems to be implied and to a narrower and provincial use when that is required by the situation.

Seeking the causes of behavior.

In the great majority of situations we are reasonably successful in our efforts to promote learning. If we are sometimes asked what makes this whole process succeed we are quite at a loss for words. It is a much more frequent occurrence for us to have ideas about some child who is not learning and who is not behaving as he should. One of the purposes of drawing up this outline of the teaching job was to suggest those functions which are basic to success in the work. In other words, as we carry on the processes here outlined, these might be some of the satisfactory answers to the question of why we succeed.

Even the best of us, however, have children in our rooms who seem to be learning much less well than seems possible, and whose behavior is distracting to say it moderately. Under these circumstances the easy way out has been to coin adverse phrases and to

make judgments about the behavior that is unsatisfying. On the whole, however, our continuing task is to try to formulate some of our hunches about what might be wrong and how we might have a better chance to succeed with these children. What are some of the common hunches that we have about failure to learn?

One of our first concerns when things are not going right is to make further inquiries about the physical health of the child. We sometimes have a hunch that if something is wrong physically it might explain difficulty in learning and that if the physical fault were treated learning might accelerate. Experienced teachers almost always take this into consideration when they are confronted with a problem in learning.

We sometimes sense that children are emotionally disturbed and that some emotional need is being thwarted or frustrated. Guided by our experience with children, directing our attention very sharply to what these children say and to what they do, we investigate the basis for another hunch and we try to meet a need that might be the cause of the student's present behavior. We seem to think that this emotional foundation has a tremendous significance for learning, and very often achievement in school is greatly accelerated when we are able to meet some crucial emotional need of the child.

Now and then we sense that a child is deeply perturbed, very greatly concerned, about some private matter which is of great moment to him. We sense that the child has great anxiety and that he is deeply worried. Where we have psychological services in the school we are quite apt to make use of them to develop the case. Where these are unavailable we may try to locate resources which will be helpful. If this cannot be done we might find it possible to talk with the parents, and in an atmosphere of warmth we may even find that the child will relate to us something of his concern. If we help him to reduce his worry and his anxiety about a special problem we believe we are clearing the ground for learning.

Evaluating and reporting.

In every school there is a practice of reporting to parents. Very rarely this is confined exclusively to conferences. Most often it



Evaluation takes many forms—sometimes teacher, parent and child discuss problems together.

includes a formal written report. A distinction commonly made between the two forms is that the interview is more often focused on the personality side of the child's growth and development. In the oral interview the teacher is concerned with a sharing situation, in which he and the parent talk over problems and concerns of children, emotional needs of children, adjustment of the child to other children in group situations, the hopes and aspirations of children, their special interests and appreciations, and the ways in which free time, in and out of school, is utilized. Most of these items are personal in quality and usually are excluded from reports that are publicly available in school offices in written records to the parents.

The written report usually includes some kind of rating or grading concerning progress in schoolwork and some mention of habits of work and standards of work which involve cooperation and responsibility. When this system is employed it is usually a

recurring function to report four, six, eight, or nine times a year, the same form being employed.

Where a teacher makes diagnoses of learning difficulties the report is usually written for his own use and sometimes is available for use by other teachers who may be working with a particular child. Conventionally these are not even made available to all teachers in a school but only to those who have responsibilities for the child, and the reports as a whole are destroyed when the child leaves the school.

Sometimes the rating forms employed in a school system contain information gathered for the use of the school, and this information is not made available to parents or to children. It is a form of reporting which is considered to be useful in making school-wide policies.

Day by day in our activities with children we are reporting to them. Sometimes this is done in our casual moments of talking with individuals about their work. Sometimes it is done in an interview situation. Sometimes — not in reporting periods — we may write an individual report about a child which we want to discuss with both child and parent. This kind of evaluation is not really casual or incidental at all. The evaluation which we want takes place inside the child, and how the teacher helps him to make this evaluation is very important; how parents help him is probably equally important.

Sometimes we need to make reports which will go to other schools or will go to other social institutions within the community. We are asked for information which will be useful to other institutions in their guidance of the child. Typically we have to know what purposes are being sought, and when we do we write reports which we believe will be most helpful to those who are seeking the information.

Our evaluations ought normally to be those which are related to our most important concerns in the growth of the child. Where we are concerned with the child's own development of purpose and planning ability our reports should reflect this concern. Where we are concerned with progress in skills our reports should reflect this emphasis. By and large we need to take children into

this process of evaluation and allow them to help in estimates of achievement and of difficulty in relation to purpose. The biggest danger is in becoming rigid and stereotyped in our thinking about children and losing our sensitivity to their rich variation and potential. Our function in evaluating and reporting must be consistent with our own purpose in guiding the growth and development of children. It is less our task to make arbitrary judgments than it is to provide a basis which may lead to further achievement and to further growth. The measures available to us for measuring progress are weak instruments when taken in isolation. When our own observations, the estimates of the children, *and* the test data are synthesized they allow us to make a better estimate; even so it is frequently far from a valid basis for making judgments that are absolutely error-proof. We need to be very flexible about our reporting schemes, and we need to use qualifying phrases where our evidence is less than adequate.

Opportunities to summarize experiences and to suggest next steps are tremendously valuable as experience goes forward. This procedure of looking back and of looking forward and of planning next steps are all undoubtedly related to evaluation and to reporting. Hence the process of evaluating and reporting should be undoubtedly related to our environment and to our aims in education, and they must continually involve greater consideration of the role of parents and a greater understanding of the home situation and the place of the child in it. Here again, as in the other functions of teaching, the description of the job is merely a description of a required function. The art of carrying out the function is a very subtle one. It is undoubtedly related to all of the other functions, and it is colored by our regard for children; it is reflected by our attitudes toward individual differences, and it is shaped by our awareness of the difficulties of making absolute judgments. The task seems to be multiple; we must make clear to ourselves and to others the purpose of reporting; we must make clear to ourselves and to others the data available for evaluation and the limitations which must necessarily be attached to any judgments which we make; and the whole process must be influenced by a conviction that all of it is done with the primary purpose of making contributions to the life of the child.

The housekeeping aspect of teaching.

Some classrooms seem to be wonderful places in which to live and learn. The arrangement of the room, pictures on the walls, flowers and plants that are in it, the arrangement of the seats, the place of the teacher's desk, the extra tables and chairs, the files and bookcases, maps and globes are all distributed in such a way as to be almost unnoticed parts of a harmonious whole. There are other classrooms in which the situation resembles chaos and confusion. In one the teacher and the children are working together to provide fine working conditions, and in the other situations have developed which actually impede learning. The matter of "keeping house" is a very important part of the teacher's job and especially so in the elementary schools of the nation.



Teachers and children working together make the classroom a good place in which to live and learn.

On the other hand, there are classrooms that are merely show-cases — decorations rather than the products of work receiving emphasis in the daily life of the teacher and the children. In some of these "parlors" no one is allowed to get anything dirty. Everything seems to be for display rather than for live communication.

Many functions can be served but it is helpful to learn which is of primary consideration, and display should be thought of as secondary.

There is the problem of maintaining an equitable temperature, in having air that is sweet and clean to breathe. There is the problem of arranging space and routines which will take care of the clothing of children and of boots and rubbers. There is the problem of displaying and storing the products on which children work. There is necessity frequently for larger working spaces on the floor and on the walls, and somehow this must be arranged.

In certain kinds of weather our rooms can become quite dirty and as a consequence unappetizing as places to work. There is the need for adequate light for special tasks. There is need for arranging desks which will be appropriate for different purposes. There is need for accessibility to all parts of the room and for communication by children with each other and by the children with the teacher. There is need for frequent clean-up after certain activities. In this respect it can safely be said that children are not always being given the chance to develop responsibility for cleanliness in situations in which they contribute. Children can help in many ways in the household management of the classroom. Individuals can take responsibilities, groups may have certain responsibilities, and teachers and children working together can make plans which will contribute greatly to the effectiveness of the classroom as a working environment. A teacher who finds himself somewhat ill-prepared for this function might well visit other rooms in the school or visit other schools. Photographs might be taken of a room "before" and "after" and displayed in the room. Parents might be invited to share in the task of making the classroom a better place in which to live and learn.

On occasion one finds a teacher who is very much concerned about this aspect of the job, but only for a few weeks in the first month of school. Here the idea seems to be that one arrangement is adequate for the entire school year and that continuing attention to the task is unnecessary. Where more flexible outlooks obtain, teachers and children recur now and then to the problem and reconceive the plan and make the modifications which will help in achieving a better atmosphere in which to work. In conclusion

it may be said that nearly all administrators are especially sensitive to this side of the teaching task and look for effectiveness in the home management side of the teaching job. It should be added that the custodian of the building is often a source of great help in working out plans, for where the teacher and children are actively cooperating with the custodial staff they will be adding to the effectiveness of his work and to the cheerfulness and attractiveness of their own surroundings.

School-wide responsibilities.

In every school the teacher's primary task is that of continued associations with one group of children. Almost never, however, are his responsibilities confined to this group. The teacher functions as a representative of the school, and in the building he is expected to represent the policies of the school in his interactions with children who are not members of his own class. He is expected to feel a responsibility for the maintenance and care of the building and its grounds and of the school's relationships to all parents and to the community.

Normally the teacher is expected to function as an active member of the faculty in faculty meetings and in faculty committees. Sometimes it is part of the whole job to share responsibilities for developing school-wide programs which might relate to assemblies, to dramatic and musical productions, to the observances of holidays or other special occasions.

The teacher may be expected to work with others in the development of new curriculum materials or new evaluation materials, and the work may be related much more specifically to other classrooms than to his own but it is regarded as a school-wide responsibility.

In meetings of the Parent-Teacher Association teachers are normally expected to be contributors to the work. The teacher may have duties relating to the lunchroom, to the playground, to the arrival and departure of busses, to duties in corridors or libraries or the office.

Sometimes the whole school is involved in money-raising activities, and the teacher finds himself a part of a group which is devoted to the task. During the war years, for example, schools

were utilized as part of the rationing programs, and many teachers participated in the successful working out of this problem.

In relation to safety, fire prevention, and fire drills the teacher commonly is carrying out a part of a total program. Sometimes the teacher finds in his classroom a loud-speaker system by which other individuals can communicate with him and his group. On many occasions this constitutes a nuisance and an interference, and there may be times when teachers will initiate school-wide considerations of the most effective use of this device.

In many schools each room is not equipped fully with visual aids. These are resources of the school, and the teacher must learn the routines through which these become available and must learn ways of anticipating his needs and to do this in ways which will not cause inconvenience in the administrative process.

School-wide responsibilities differ from school to school and from community to community. It is often very difficult for the supervisory personnel to identify exactly what they are. Here again the sensitive teacher recognizes when identification is appropriate and when it is not. Where there is doubt it may be possible to clarify the situation by discussions with other teachers and with the supervisor. There is little doubt, however, that these responsibilities are a very necessary part of teaching and of the work of a teacher. It may well be that they consume too much of our time and occupy too much of our efforts.

Curriculum-making function.

Every teacher is faced with the task of enriching the curriculum which is represented by books. Some books, in fact nearly all books, are not adapted to the needs of a particular group of children. Sometimes extra materials have to be developed if learning is to be assured, and under such circumstances the teacher has some things mimeographed or dittoed or rexographed. Sometimes the teacher puts the materials on the blackboard. Nearly all teachers have to become familiar with audio-visual materials which are relevant to the studies which the children are undertaking and on many occasions these must be ordered some time in advance. Frequently a teacher must study the resources of the library to see how these might be used to supplement what is

in the classroom. In planning field trips the teacher is extending the curriculum out of the classroom, and in many schools this is accepted and expected practice. On many occasions the teacher recommends readings or exercises for individual children and this is part of the work of developing a curriculum. In choosing crayons, paint, textiles, in developing plans for clay, for weaving, in developing a darkroom arrangement that will work, in ordering catalogs which will be helpful to children in their learning, the teacher is working on the curriculum. While much of this work goes on in the daytime, there is evidence that a great deal of it is carried on by the teacher in after-school hours. If the curriculum is flexible, if it is stimulating to the children, if the demands it makes are consistent with values prized by the children and by the community, then children have opportunities to display strengths and weaknesses that are extremely important. If, however, the curriculum is narrow and provincial, if it restricts the expression of value, of skill, of thinking and planning, then it prevents the recognition of strengths and weaknesses in these areas. These activities which entail the development of the curriculum materials are among the most important of teaching functions.

Professional and personal life.

It was said of one superintendent of schools that he didn't have twenty-five years of experience; he had one year of experience twenty-five times. If teaching is to be a challenge intellectually, emotionally, ethically, morally, then it must be rich in opportunities for growth on the part of the teacher. If we stagnate we shall die professionally and the work will lose its zest.

Almost every teacher can carry on some kind of inquiry as part of his work and reconstruct his efforts on the basis of his own researches. Every teacher can carry on a program of reading which will keep him in touch with frontier developments in the field. Every teacher can seek ways of sharing with other teachers what is going on at other places. Every teacher can become associated with professional organizations, can attend meetings, and can participate in their deliberations. In contacts with other teachers it is possible to be sensitive to the need for consultation in the

local situation and to invite people to come to the school to discuss theories and practices which may be relevant. It is possible for teachers and groups to have active concern about the entire school program, to identify with the success of the entire educational venture, to become concerned about students who leave the school or who graduate from it, and to conduct follow-up studies with the view of making the educational institution a better one. Teachers may become concerned with the quality of community living and inquire amongst themselves and amongst parents about ways in which the total life of the community may become better for children. As teachers become involved in these kinds of activities their professional life is enriched. Almost every place it is expected of teachers that they will do things which will insure the continuing improvement of the profession.

The quality of personal living is just as important to teachers as to other professions and perhaps more so. It has been widely recognized that teachers often do not feel themselves an integral part of the community in which they practice their profession. Oftentimes this is the result of a practice in which teachers participate in community affairs *as teachers* rather than as adult citizens of the community. Their role is an isolated one, and quite often they are expected to assume the role on all occasions at which they are present. There are occasions upon which this is stultifying. Teachers need relaxation from the care and worries of professional work. They need to have fun: they need to have outside interests; they need to have change in their environment; they need to have challenge and diversity. They need to get away from the community and see things and have new experiences. They need to make friends in the community and have a sense of belongingness that comes from friendship. They need to make firmer attachments to some of the local social institutions including the church. They need to become regular members of some of these programs in the sense that they are accepted as regulars.

Teachers need housing conditions that are excellent. They need privacy in their home life. They need a home that is adequate for the entertainment of colleagues and of lay people. They need to have salaries which will allow them to have such homes and

such other supplies and materials as will enable them to carry on the ordinary adult activities of a professional person. Even here some of the financial and material aids are inadequate; and notwithstanding, it still must be recognized that this social life of the teacher is a very important part of the job. If it is rich and full and reasonably happy the job of teaching is lightened and the teacher as a person becomes more effective. Each teacher needs to look back over the week or the month and to see to what extent his own professional and his own personal life are receiving attention. What proportion of his time is devoted to these two sides of the enrichment of life? Is adequate time and attention given to it by the teacher himself or by teachers working together as a group? What plans can be made to insure the continuing growth of teachers as persons?

The total teaching job has been analyzed. The twelve very important aspects of it have been abstracted. Each has been discussed at some length. The objective was to clarify the functions and to write only as much as was needed to secure that clarity. Are these twelve aspects of teaching the most important parts of the job? Taken together do they represent the art of the work of a teacher? Do they constitute an adequate basis for examining what we are doing daily in our work with children? Would this outline be helpful in considering ways of improving the quality of our work? Would this analysis be helpful, do you think, as a basis for looking at our present programs of teacher education in colleges and universities?

CHAPTER VI

DEFINING THE TASK OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL¹

Problem

In order to develop an adequate frame of reference for the operations of the Yale-Fairfield Study it is essential that certain concepts basic to the study be defined and clarified. One of the first tasks undertaken, therefore, was the job of developing a concept of the *role of the modern elementary school in our society*, its function in the total education of our children, and the objectives in terms of which its task is most appropriately conceived. Only in the framework of a definition of the essential job which the elementary school has to perform can sound and productive experimental studies be designed and evaluated.

Factors Which Change the Nature of School Tasks

It is evident that the task of the elementary school has become broader and more complex as the culture of the society which maintains the school has grown in complexity. The expanding nature of the school's function is rooted in changing social and economic patterns of living, in the aspirations of the people, in growing fields of knowledge essential to effective living in today's world, and in an increased understanding of child growth and development and of the nature of learning.

Sheer numbers alone have brought about changes in the task

¹The Yale-Fairfield Study of Elementary Teaching is concerned with the first seven years of school. The term elementary used in this report refers, therefore, to the kindergarten through grade six level.

of the school. The U. S. census figures of 1952 show that 99.4 per cent of the total population of children of elementary school age (seven to thirteen years) were enrolled in school. In 1910 the proportion of children of similar ages who attended school was 81.6 per cent. It is obvious that the elementary school, public and private, has now become the common school of our society.

Although eight years of schooling still represents the maximum in formal education for one-fifth of our children,² the trend is in the direction of increased enrollment in secondary schools. The elementary school is becoming less terminal in its function.

As school enrollment swells due to the rising birth rate, to the extension of school opportunities to serve a greater proportion of children, and to the increased holding power of the schools, the problem becomes not merely one of dealing with greater numbers but also one of dealing with greater diversities of needs and abilities of children.

Increasing urbanization, a high rate of mobility of populations, requirements of military service for men, the divorce rate, and the employment of women outside the home have altered traditional patterns of family living. The Midcentury White House Conference reported that in 1949:

One out of every five mothers with children of school age was working outside the home.³ In cases where supplementary income is not an incentive many women are finding greater satisfaction in participation in the wider world of business, industry, community services, and social activities than in the job of homemaker. Labor-saving devices for housekeeping have freed many women to seek a broader role.

One out of eight children was not living with both parents.⁴ Death, divorce, illness, legal separation, and services in the armed forces all contribute to the total of nearly six million children growing up without a full complement of parents.

Between 1948-49, eight million children moved.⁵ These fig-

²U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in U. S.*, 1948-1950, reports 77 of 100 persons of high school age (fourteen to seventeen) enrolled in public or nonpublic secondary schools (grades nine to twelve) in 1949-50.

³Fact Finding Committee of the Midcentury White House Conference, *Children and Youth at the Midcentury, A Chart Book*, Chart 12.

⁴*Ibid.*, Chart 13.

⁵*Ibid.*, Chart 4.

ures show that in one year more than one of every five children under seventeen years of age changed his home, his surroundings, his school, and his friends.

The traditional tasks of the elementary school, the teaching of basic skills and useful knowledge, remain fundamental. But the skills which are basic to effective and intelligent living have changed and expanded.

The social learnings appropriate for an ox-cart culture are, to say the least, inadequate in an age of jet propulsion. Young children need a breadth of intercultural understanding to equip them for effective living, perhaps for survival, in a shrinking world.

Today's child is bombarded with words, both written and oral. To teach mere skills without attention to ideas, to selectivity, to critical judgment and discrimination, and especially without attention to ideals is dangerous. The media of mass communication which play so significant a role in acculturation pose for the schools a serious problem in developing intelligent and discriminating readers and listeners.

The tasks of the modern elementary school also reflect the concern of contemporary society with many problems of human welfare. There is increasing public concern with problems of health and safety, physical fitness, mental health, recreation, the use of leisure time, intercultural understandings, conservation of human and material resources, as well as combating delinquency and crime, racial tensions, prejudices, and segregation. Progress in the solution of these human problems implies new and broader educational programs, new tasks for our schools. The elementary school today has a responsibility for the important early learnings and attitudes of children in these areas.

Expanding fields of knowledge in the physical sciences impose broader tasks upon the schools. In designing educational experiences for children it is essential to determine what scientific understandings are basic to effective living in today's world. The speed with which changes occur in areas of science poses a continuous problem in selecting the significant learnings for young children.

In the social sciences knowledge grows and new insights de-

velop with almost equal rapidity. The sociologists are developing concepts relating to the interaction of persons in groups. These have great significance to the schools. The growing concepts of the interrelatedness and interdependence of all peoples of the world bring to the school the challenge of providing for better understanding of other cultures and other environments.

And, finally, the job of the school grows in scope and complexity as new knowledge develops in psychology, in child growth and development, and in the nature of human learnings. Higher levels of professional preparation are essential if teachers are to make effective use of these understandings in providing the best possible school experiences for children.

It is evident that the combined impact of all these forces has brought about tremendous additions and modifications in the responsibilities which the maintaining society assigns to its schools. As Commager said in discussing the contribution of education to American democracy, "No other people ever demanded so much of education as have the Americans."⁶ This continues to be true.

As in any process of change there is a degree of uncertainty and uneasiness. Teachers are confused as they struggle to meet new demands. While they recognize that learning involves the whole child and that all aspects of growth and development are important, they feel pressured by too many needs to meet, too much to teach, too little time.

Procedure in Study of the Problem

The staff of the Yale-Fairfield Study has sought to clarify the concept of the essential tasks of elementary education through three interrelated studies. The first two projects, the Center Harbor Conference and the study of commonly agreed upon objectives of elementary education as expressed in the literature, are reported below. The third project, a survey of opinion concerning the degree of responsibility the school holds for the achievement of these objectives, is reported in the following chapter.

Conclusions and implications drawn from these investigations are presented at the end of Chapter VII.

⁶H. S. Commager, "Our Schools Have Kept Us Free," *Life*, October 16, 1950.

Center Harbor Report on the Task of the Elementary School

Recognizing that the job of adequately defining the task of the modern elementary school was a difficult one, the Yale-Fairfield Study utilized the service of a group of consultants⁷ at a conference held in Center Harbor in July 1954. Here a valuable statement of basic principles was developed.

The Center Harbor Conference based its study of the problem on five assumptions:

1. The total education of the child derives from many sources — home, church, neighbors, community and its agencies, etc.
2. The school has vital tasks in this total education — tasks which today need new clarification and definition.
3. The elementary school has tasks which are significantly its own but related to the over-all organization of the school system, i.e. high school, special school services, etc.
4. The elementary school tasks reflect the fact that (1) almost all of the children of all of the people go to elementary school and (2) the age group of children involved ranges in general from five to fourteen.
5. The child brings his whole self to school—his wants, needs, desires, hurts, joys, memories of the past, future anticipations, experiences with other educative forces both positive and negative — and therefore the elementary school must take all of these into account in designing and carrying on his education.

The particular function of the school compared with other agencies was defined by the group as the responsibility for "organizing, systematizing, and giving a formal status to these learnings deemed essential in a democratic society." The school is unique in that it provides the resources and the trained personnel necessary to aid children to learn these essentials more efficiently and more speedily.

The elementary school is responsible to a large degree for the social development of the child since it is the primary school which first introduces the child to group living and learning away from home. The school helps the young child to understand and accept the need for order and for regulations in effective group life. Citizenship, early experiences with law and order, wise loy-

⁷See Preface for names of consultants.

alties, character building are all essentials in the elementary years.

As the elementary school introduces the child to the fundamental skills of reading, arithmetic, spelling, and writing and helps him progress according to his capacity in each, the school is also responsible for developing clear thinking and efficient work habits. In the early years of school life the child "learns how to learn."

The conference identified those aspects of the cultural heritage whose beginning learnings belong in the elementary school. The school is responsible for providing experiences through which the child grows in understanding the world of science. The school is concerned with values and the meaning of spiritual living. Aesthetic and creative experiences are essentials in promoting the growth of each child's fullest potential for rich and satisfying living.

The school must provide for the child experiences leading to understanding of his own social environment and understanding of the peoples of the world, their common human needs, and the varying culture patterns through which these needs are met.

The conference ascribed to the school a responsibility for developing understandings and attitudes essential to good physical and mental health.

These areas serve to define the over-all task of the elementary schools. The Center Harbor group, however, emphasized two significant points:

1. The role of a given elementary school is conditioned by the needs, differences, and resources, the pressures, anxieties, and aspirations of the neighborhood it serves. While school tasks may not differ in kind in varying communities, they surely differ in degree because of the differences in background and opportunity afforded.

2. In many aspects of the total education of children the elementary school shares responsibility with other agencies concerned with the child's life. The school needs to participate effectively with the home and with other agencies. The elementary school, though responsible in a broad sense for discovering the needs of "the whole child," must draw upon the expertness of others trained in fields other than teaching. The teacher should not cross

the professional line to become an amateur therapist, amateur social worker, or in other ways take over clearly conceived tasks of other agencies. The school needs to study its role in those areas for which the school is not uniquely responsible but in which the school must work cooperatively with others. The elementary school has a particular task in establishing effective relationships with parents and the home.

Identification and Study of Commonly Agreed Upon Objectives

The staff of the Yale-Fairfield Study supplemented the results of the Center Harbor conference by a study of the objectives of elementary education generally accepted by lay and professional groups. An extensive survey of the literature related to elementary schools was undertaken.

The following types of sources were consulted in this survey:

1. Professional educational texts and periodicals.
2. Yearbooks and reports of educational organizations.
3. Material published by local boards of education.
4. Statements developed by lay groups, i.e. P.T.A., citizens study councils, industrial groups.
5. Materials published by state departments of education.
6. Critical studies of the schools by lay and professional writers.

Seventy-five statements of objectives of the school were derived from these sources. Nineteen were broad statements reflecting basic values of our society but were so generalized in structure that they contributed little to an attempt to define the essential task of the school. Fifty-six, however, were stated in terms which were specific enough to permit tabulation and analysis of content.

A study and analysis of the content of these fifty-six statements revealed that the objectives most commonly ascribed to the elementary schools fall into ten major categories. (Figure 1)

The next step was to develop a descriptive statement, in behavioral terms, based on each of these ten commonly agreed-upon objectives of the elementary school. Many teachers, supervisors,

and specialists provided valuable contributions and criticisms in the development of this statement. There is, again, no implication of relative importance in value in the order in which these statements are presented.

A. Physical health

It is a responsibility of the school to assess the needs of the child in the optimum realization of his potential physical well-being and to provide a program to meet these needs. The extent to which the elementary school is responsible for this area of child welfare will vary in different communities.

After identifying these categories of objectives an analysis was made to determine the frequency of appearance of each objective within the fifty-six statements studied, the results of which appear in Figure 1.

The school may be initiator, coordinator, or effective participant in the task of providing for each child the opportunity for health and physical development. The degree of responsibility and the role appropriate to any given school can be defined only in relationship to the total community picture — to the homes and to other social agencies concerned with child health.

Since the detection and remediation of physical defects is most important in early childhood, and since the elementary school includes almost all the children of all the people, schools provide for periodic physical examinations as a part of the health program. The school works with the home or other agencies toward the correction of all remedial defects — nutritional, orthopedic, dental, visual, auditory, or other systemic defects. The school also participates in programs of preventive medicine.

The curriculum of the school provides for essential learnings in health, safety, and physical education and is designed to provide for each child:

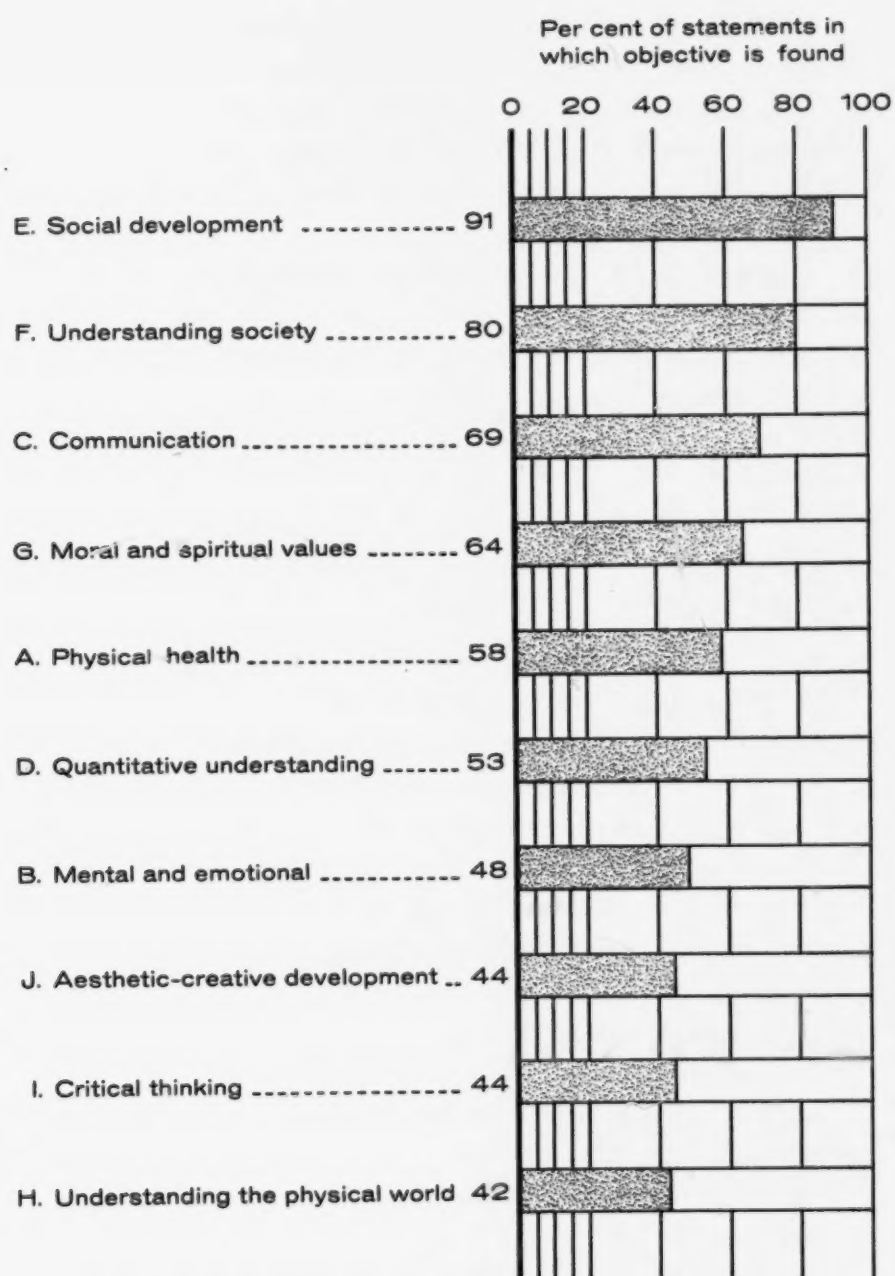
Growth in appreciation of the value of a healthy body.

Experiences which help him understand his own body and its needs — exercise, rest, food, cleanliness.

An elementary understanding of simple aspects of community health.

Figure 1

Frequency of Reference to Ten Most Commonly
Stated Objectives of Elementary Education



A growing sense of responsibility for his own health and the health of others.

Experiences which help him accept and practice rules of safety appropriate to his environment.

Opportunities to practice personal cleanliness.

Growth in interest in grooming appropriate to his age.

Opportunity for participation in a variety of active games, indoor, outdoor, small group, large group.

Progress in understanding group games from the simple to the more highly organized types.

Growth in strength and control through large muscle activity.

Development of physical skills demanding finer muscle coordination in games, in crafts.

Coordination and control through dance and rhythmic activities.

The elementary school child finds rich recreational interests in participation in simple sports, in games, in creative activities utilizing a sound and healthy body.

B. Mental and emotional health

The complexities and confusions of social life today force the schools to assume a greater share of the responsibility for protecting and promoting the mental health of children. The school as a controlled and simplified environment provides young children with productive and creative experiences which result in happy positive mental attitudes. This is a responsibility which is reflected in the whole life of the school.

The elementary school provides for the child:

Experiences which help him toward acceptance of his own worth as a human being.

Skills through which he finds satisfaction and growth, pride in achievement.

Avenues for appropriate expression and control of emotions.

Opportunity to be himself in an atmosphere of acceptance.

Security in understanding and accepting rules for group living.

A sound balance of dependence and independence in personal relations.

Effective ways of handling his fears.

Understanding of his sex role.

Constantly growing ability to relate happily to others.

Experiences which promote health, recreational and leisure-time activities.

C. Communication

The elementary school provides for the growth of the child in those skills by which men communicate with one another—in looking, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Through the development of these abilities the child acquires the means for broader and richer living and learning experiences. Since the elementary school customarily introduces the child to these areas of learning, the school must assume the twofold responsibility of, first, providing for the growth of each child in the skills of communication according to his capacity and maturity and, second, stimulating the desire to refine and intelligently employ these skills toward ever wider understanding of and communication with his world.

The program of the elementary school is designed to provide for each child:

An environment which stimulates interest and promotes growth in reading.

Experiences which equip him to bring intelligent interpretation to the symbols of reading.

Growth in vocabulary appropriate to his age, his experiences, and his needs.

Growth in skills of word recognition, in comprehension and interpretation of reading materials.

Awareness of different kinds of reading materials and their uses to him.

Experiences which develop habits and skills in critical reading and thinking.

Ability to read appropriate material efficiently and to vary his techniques to suit his purpose.

Wide acquaintance with children's literature, prose and poetry, both traditional and modern.

An "at-homeness" with books based on the secure mastery of basic skills and efficient habits of reading.

Ability to participate freely in informal discussion.

Growth in ability to enunciate clearly, the elimination of common speech faults.

Increasing discrimination in the use of words.

Opportunity to test and clarify thinking through oral expression.

Opportunity to share in the personal experiences of others through speech and listening.

Growth in ability to formulate simple oral statements about a central idea.

Ability to use simple and correct grammatical forms of speech.

Practice in intelligent and discriminative listening.

Experiences which promote skill and discrimination in the use of media of mass communication—radio, television, tape recording, film.

Satisfying experiences in creative oral expression.

Growth in ability to communicate simple ideas in writing.

Growing sensitivity to meaning and beauty of words and phrases.

Ability to spell common words needed for written communication, friendly letters, reports, etc.

Gradual development of the motor skills needed for legible handwriting.

Ability to interpret material presented by maps, charts, and simple graphic forms and to employ these appropriately.

D. Quantitative understanding

The elementary school provides for the growth of basic understandings and skills in the use of the number system by which man measures, weighs, computes, and records. Essential learning in this area begins when the young child first counts or compares objects about him. The school program is built about experiences

which assist the child to broaden his understanding, deepen his insight, and refine his skills in the rational use of numbers.

The elementary school program provides for:

Experiences leading to meaningful concepts of number, time, distance, weight, and space relationships.

Familiarity with symbols and the vocabulary of quantitative thinking.

A growing mastery of the elementary processes of the number system.

Meaningful experiences in problem solving involving quantitative concepts.

Practice leading to habits of accuracy and efficiency in computation.

Recognition of need for accurate command of simple arithmetic processes needed in daily living.

E. Social relationships

Since the elementary school is the social institution which provides for the young child his initial experience in larger group association, it follows that the school must assume a particular responsibility in educating for satisfying and productive group living.

The nature of the experiences in group living which the child finds in kindergarten and which broaden and deepen in later childhood is a challenge to the school, for in the quality of his "belonging" lie the roots of growing social understandings and of active citizenship.

The activities of the elementary school are designed to provide for each child:

Experiences which help him grow in self-understanding, self-respect, and self-acceptance.

Growth in understanding the relation of self to others — sharing, taking turns, contributing and accepting help.

Increasing sensitivity to the needs, feeling, desires, and rights of others.

An awareness of the struggles through which rights of people were secured and are maintained.

An effective understanding of the relationship between his individual rights and his group responsibilities.

Opportunities to learn through ongoing and varied group experiences the techniques of cooperation.

Growth in skill in a variety of roles appropriate to group activity—in leadership, intelligent followership, cooperative planning, and evaluation.

Experiences which provide for growth in disposition and ability to recognize threats and dangers to his own rights and to the rights of others and to defend these rights effectively.

Participation in group action through which the values and processes of democracy are made clear.

F. Understanding of the social environment

As the young child grows in breadth of social relationships the school provides the experiences which lead to an increased understanding of how men live together and of the institutions of society. The roles and attendant responsibilities of family living, the habits, regulations, and attitudes necessary for the effective group living in the classroom and the school are extended to an understanding of the cooperative nature of community life and the institutions of government.

The elementary school program in social understandings provides for the young child:

A growing appreciation for the behavior necessary to orderly group life at home and at school.

Experiences in formulating and evaluating his own procedures for group living.

Growth in understanding the functions of various workers in the larger community, town, city, and state.

Understanding of people of other cultures and how they organize patterns for group living.

Understanding of how people developed solutions to problems of social organization in earlier times and in other cultures.

Ability to relate this understanding to the study of current problems.

Understanding of how changes in community life, i.e. communication and transportation, bring about changes in institutions of government.

Comprehension of change as a constant factor in social life and man's responsibility for intelligent control of changing social patterns.

Loyalty to the institutions of democracy which safeguard the rights of individuals.

Appreciation of the history of the development of democratic ideals.

G. Moral and spiritual values

The elementary school as an instrument of a democratic society should reflect in every facet of its organization and activities the highest moral values of that society. The school is, in a sense, a simplified and purified environment designed to foster the growth of young children toward the ethical ideals of the maintaining society. This function of the school is not discrete but underlies and permeates every other aspect of the school program.

The program of the school develops in the child:

Respect for life.

Respect for each individual human being.

A growing awareness of his own balance of rights and responsibilities in relationships with others.

A sense of concern for the welfare of others.

A developing set of values by which he governs himself in relationship to property, to truth, to the needs and rights of other children, to his family, and to the adult world.

A deeper understanding of the meaning and importance of religion as a factor in the life of man.

Respect for religious beliefs of others.

H. Understanding of the physical world

The elementary school is the laboratory in which the child grows in understanding of and effective relationship to his physical environment.

The natural curiosity of the young child concerning the world about him stimulates rich and varied science learning in the

elementary school program. The child grows not only in understanding the world of nature and in appreciation of his own relationship to the physical environment but also in understanding the tools and methods of science.

The program of science in the elementary school provides for the child:

Growth in familiarity with the things which comprise the natural environment — animals, plants, the earth, weather and the seasons, physical forces.

Progress in effective ways of thinking about the factors of the physical world and man.

Understanding of how man adapts to and controls his natural environment.

Appreciation for the riches of the earth and the need for conservation of resources.

Opportunity to learn to perform simple experiments and demonstrations.

Stimulation to wide and critical reading of science materials.

The beginnings of a systematic understanding of the physical environment.

I. Critical thinking

The school is unique among the educative factors in the lives of young children in that it provides a controlled and simplified environment in which conscious attention can be given to the development of reasoned thinking and rational problem solving.

The entire program of the elementary school should be designed to provide for the child, in terms of his own growth:

Opportunities to relate that which he has learned through past experiences to the consideration and solution of new problems on his level.

Practice in identifying problems and evaluating ways to solve problems.

Growth in ability to seek and to weigh evidence.

Ability to plan simple, successive steps toward problem solving.

Ability to collect information from a variety of sources,
i.e. people, things, books, TV, radio.

Ever widening curiosity about his world and a love of
learning.

Disposition to base action on thought.

Growing skill in the process of group thinking.

J. Aesthetic and creative development

The elementary school should provide a living environment
and a program of activities designed to develop the aesthetic,
appreciative, and creative abilities of children. Through varied
experiences in music, art, crafts, drama, dance, and literature the
appreciation of beauty is fostered and the potential for individual
creativity is released and developed.

The school provides for the child:

Day-by-day living in an environment designed to develop
and maintain a sense of beauty in order, harmony of design,
and color.

Variety of art media with which children can create and
grow in appreciation and in skills.

Rich experiences with the whole field of music, group
singing, instrumental music, listening experiences.

Opportunities to explore crafts and develop individually
satisfying forms of creative expression.

Experiences in a variety of dramatic forms — plays, pan-
tomines, puppets, verse choir.

Opportunities for rhythmic expression in dance.

Experiences in the creative use of language.

Wider enjoyment of the rich field of children's literature.

A variety of rich human experiences through which he
grows in capacity to enjoy people of all ages and backgrounds.

CHAPTER VII

INVESTIGATION OF UNIQUE AND SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES

The ten objectives described in the preceding chapter may be assumed to represent areas of the total education of the child with which our schools are concerned. It is obviously impossible and undesirable, however, that the school accept complete responsibility for development of the individual in each of these areas. The question arises: Which of these objectives are unique and essential responsibilities of the schools; in which do the schools accept a major but not a total responsibility; which are responsibilities shared with the home, church, and other educative agencies of the community?

This seems to be a significant area of investigation for any study concerned with experimental modifications of elementary education. It is not a question which has a quick and easy answer. In fact there appears to be no one answer which defines the degree of responsibility proper to a school at all times and in all communities.

A survey of teacher opinion was undertaken in an attempt to define more clearly which tasks teachers themselves generally accept as major responsibilities in their work with children. An instrument was designed, tested, revised, and subsequently used with groups of experienced teachers. One hundred and thirty-seven elementary classroom teachers in Fairfield, 138 elementary classroom teachers in graduate classes at a university, and 53 elementary classroom teachers in a graduate seminar at a state teachers' college cooperated with this study by indicating their opinions concerning the objectives on the check list. When the sample was selected

only teachers with some experience were approached. The results represent then the opinions of practitioners concerning the unique and the shared aspects of their job. This is a limited study both quantitatively and geographically. A broader investigation of teacher opinion concerning this problem might be profitably undertaken.

A five-point scale was devised on which each of the 328 respondents indicated opinion concerning the degree to which the school is responsible for the achievement of each of the ten major objectives. A central position (3) on the scale indicates the opinion that responsibility is shared between the school, the home, and/or other agencies which contribute to the education of the child. Positions 1 and 2 indicate the opinion that a greater share of responsibility belongs to the school. Positions 4 and 5 indicate that major responsibility is considered to rest with agencies other than the school.

In the accompanying graphs the responses occurring in the first two positions on the scale (i.e. 1 and 2) have been combined and reported under "S"—as largely the school's responsibility. The total number of responses under the last two positions (i.e. 4 and 5) have been combined and reported under "O"—largely the responsibility of the home, community, or other agency. Position 3 indicates an area in which responsibility is equally shared.

The instrument used in this investigation is reproduced below.

A study of these results, as shown in Table I, indicates that, in the opinion of the respondents:

1. The school has some degree of responsibility in each of the ten objectives stated. Of the total responses (328) only four indicated that the school had no responsibility in the achievement of a given objective.

2. There are marked differences in the total opinions as to the degree of school responsibility for specific objectives.

C (skills, attitudes, and understanding for effective communication—reading, speech, writing, spelling) and D (understanding of and skill in use of number system) are most strongly assigned to the school with 96 and 97 per cent of the choices falling under columns 1 and 2.

H (knowledge and understanding of the physical world) and I (reasoning and critical thinking) are assigned to the school by more than 75 per cent of the total respondents.

F (understanding of and knowledge about the structure of society and social institutions) is considered to be a school responsibility by 55 per cent of the respondents.

In the remaining areas:

A (the physical health, health habits, and health understandings of children), G (ethical character, standards, and values), B (mental and emotional health), F (social development of the child in relationships with others), and J (aesthetic development), a majority of the responses indicate that responsibility is shared between the school and other agencies.

THE YALE-FAIRFIELD STUDY OF ELEMENTARY TEACHING

This question is directed to you as a teacher, responsible for the educational program of children in the elementary school.

Listed below are the ten most commonly stated objectives of the elementary school. Will you study the scale (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) below and check each objective to indicate your own opinion as to the degree to which the school is responsible.

Scale:

- (1) An objective of the elementary school which is basic to your work with children and which seems to you to be a major obligation for which the schools are rightly held responsible.
- (2) An aspect of the total education of the child with which you as a teacher are concerned and in which the schools must assume a large share of responsibility, but in which other agencies cooperate.
- (3) An aspect of the total education of children in which the school and the home or other agency should work as partners.
- (4) An aspect of the total education of children to which the school may or may not contribute, but which is a major responsibility of other agencies.
- (5) An aspect of the total education of children in which the school has no role.

Objectives

A. The physical health, health habits, and health understandings of children

B. Mental and emotional health

C. Skills, attitudes, and understanding for effective communication—reading, speech, writing, spelling

D. Understanding of and skill in use of number system

E. Social development of the child in relationships with others

F. Understanding of and knowledge about the structure of society and social institutions

G. Ethical character, standards, and values

H. Knowledge and understanding of the physical world

I. Reasoning and critical thinking

J. Aesthetic development

	1	2	3	4	5

TABLE I
COMBINED OPINION OF 328 ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM
TEACHERS WHO RESPONDED TO THE CHECK LIST

Scale:

1. a major responsibility of the school
2. a responsibility of the school but involving the cooperation of other agencies
3. a shared responsibility involving partnership with home or other agencies
4. a major responsibility of other agencies to which the school may or may not contribute
5. an aspect of total education in which the school has no responsibility, no role

		Scale					Total No.
		1	2	3	4	5	
A. Physical health, health habits, and health understandings	% No.	.06 19	.18 58	.68 222	.08 25	0	324
B. Mental and emotional health		14 .04	90 .27	195 .60	27 .08	0	326
C. Skill in communication		254 .78	59 .18	12 .04	0	0	325
D. Quantitative understandings and the use of number		264 .81	54 .16	7 .02	1 .003	1 .003	327
E. Social development of the child in relationships with others		19 .06	108 .33	195 .59	6 .02	0	328
F. Knowledge of society and social institutions		48 .15	130 .40	123 .38	20 .06	0	321
G. Ethical character, standards, and values		10 .03	74 .22	217 .66	27 .08	0	328
H. Knowledge of physical world		130 .40	128 .39	65 .20	1 .003	0	324
I. Reasoning, critical thinking		143 .44	115 .35	66 .20	2 .01	1	327
J. Aesthetic development		17 .05	105 .32	191 .58	13 .04	2 .01	328

Concluding Statement

The Yale-Fairfield staff does not assume that it can or should attempt to produce a definitive statement of the task of the modern elementary school. In a sense there can be no statement which holds true for all schools everywhere. Each community continuously faces the task of examining the role which its schools must assume in that particular setting in order that the community as a whole provide for one of its basic functions—the proper nurture of young children.

The problem cannot be solved by educators alone. It is a shared task demanding the informed and intelligent participation of all citizens.

The Yale-Fairfield staff does not assume to present final answers to the ancient and recurring questions posed by Aristotle in 300 B.C.:

There are doubts concerning the business (of education) since all people do not agree in those things which they would have a child taught, both with respect to improvement in virtue and a happy life; nor is it clear whether the object of it should be to improve the reason or rectify the morals. From the present mode of education we cannot determine with certainty to which men incline, whether to instruct a child in which will be useful to him in life, or what tends to virtue, or what is excellent; for all these things have their separate defenders.⁵

nor to the contemporary variations on this theme.

The Yale-Fairfield staff does feel an obligation to operate in terms of a generally defensible concept of the tasks proper to the elementary school in contemporary society.

Summary

A broad definition of those areas of the education of young children with which the school must be concerned is imperative if the schools are to serve adequately the needs of children in a changing society and to utilize new and vital knowledge.

⁵Aristotle, *Politics*, Bk. VIII. Translated by Benjamin Jowett, *Great Books of the Western World*, vol. 9 (Chicago, Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., 1952).

The ten objectives discussed above identify aspects of the total education of individuals. They represent goals which a society concerned with the realization of the fullest potential of each individual must cherish for its children.

The acceptance of these major objectives does not imply that the elementary school can or should assume complete responsibility for each. The school is one of many factors which contribute to the total education of the child. Within this broad task the school has varying degrees of responsibility, varying roles to play.

Primary tasks

In some of these areas the elementary school, by virtue of its trained personnel, its materials, equipment, and organization, and the age of its pupil group, is best equipped to accept a major share of the task.

Teaching the fundamental skills (C and D) and the elements of common knowledge (F and H) which are essential for effective living in the present and basic for continuing learning are primary tasks of the elementary school. The development of habits of good reasoning and critical thinking (I) becomes to a large degree the task of the elementary school as the child grows in mastery of the tools of communication and in knowledge of his social and physical environment.

These five areas constitute the major job of the school. To provide for mastery of fundamental skills and basic knowledge for each child in terms of his potential is an obligation of organized education in our society.

Even these learnings, however, for which the school is most directly responsible are also partly a function of the family, often of the church, the social and recreational agencies of the community, and so forth.

Shared tasks

Of the ten common objectives, those dealing with physical and mental health (A and B), with moral and spiritual values (G), with aesthetic and creative development (J) and with the social development of the individual (E) are tasks in which the school shares responsibility with many other agencies. The child's needs

for health services, for social participation and development, for a general climate of living that is conducive to good mental and emotional health, for activities leading to wholesome interests, appreciations, and a sense of values, for aesthetic and creative experiences are all served to a greater or less extent by agencies other than the school itself. This does not mean that the school can give up its concern for these matters.

The elementary school is that social agency which comes in closest, most continuous contact with the lives of all young children. The school has a responsibility to study children, to know their needs, and to know the resources of the community which provide for various aspects of the total welfare of children. The school which continuously studies children comes to possess a unique degree of insight. Such insight enables the school to perform more effectively its essential tasks and to cooperate more effectively with other agencies in the total education of children.

Because of the differences between communities in the resources available to meet these needs, the exact role of the elementary school cannot be fully defined without reference to the local situation, but it should be clearly recognized that whereas the school is the foremost instrument of society for the instruction of children in certain fundamental skills and knowledge, the basic responsibility for serving many of the other needs of children is more broadly shared.

Learning does not occur in the discrete and compartmentalized fashion which a statement of objectives such as that above might be assumed to imply. Learning involves the whole organism. The school which provides most effectively for the growth of the child in the areas which are unique to the school is at the same time contributing to many other basic needs of the child—to his mental and emotional health, to his social growth, to his developing sense of values, and to his ability to appreciate the world of people and of things.

Conclusions

The school faces the continuing task of improving the effectiveness of instruction in its primary areas of concern, of providing for the optimum growth of individuals in terms of their varying

potentials, and of continuously revising the curriculum in terms of the needs of a changing society.

The school faces the task of studying the community which it serves, of assessing the needs of children, and of developing effective cooperation with all agencies which contribute to the total education and well-being of children.

The school has a twofold obligation: to do increasingly well its essential educational job and to develop understanding and technique necessary for cooperative action in the areas of shared responsibility.

We reject the tendency to hold the school responsible for the realization of all aspirations for individual well-being and social welfare. This is the point of view criticized by Kotinsky and Coleman: "It is as though home, church, social and health agency, and all other agencies and institutions by which mankind lives, or lives better than it otherwise might, had no existence, or no function to perform for the young. The young gather in the schools. Let the schools tend to all aspects of their being."⁶ We agree that "The school cannot be called upon to provide all the conditions required for healthy social and emotional development, or held solely to blame if this development is blighted — there is a home before there is a school, and society and the culture engulf both."⁷

We accept the point of view that the school must be concerned with broad aspects of the total education of children. But within this broad definition the school has specific tasks which are its own. These the school must exert every effort to do well. In other areas the obligation of the school is that of intelligent partnership with other educative factors in the lives of our children.

Implications

The concept of the task of the school which is presented here has certain implications for the nature and direction of experimental work which might be profitably undertaken toward improving both the effectiveness and attractiveness of the job of classroom teaching in the elementary school.

⁶Ruth Kotinsky and Jules Coleman, "Mental Health as an Educational Goal," *Teachers College Record*, February 1955, p. 267.
⁷*Ibid.*, p. 268.

An acceptance of a broad concept of the job of the school implies a need for developing better ways for providing prospective teachers with adequate understandings and skills in the many phases of their professional life.

A concept which emphasizes the shared nature of many responsibilities implies the need for developing techniques for cooperative study and cooperative action on the part of the school and other agencies.

A concept which identifies certain tasks as unique responsibilities of the school implies the need for organizing the school so as to free the trained professional teacher to devote a major share of time and energy to the achievement of these unique tasks.

A concept which indicates that the task of a given school must be defined in the total community setting implies the need for developing effective techniques for sociological studies centered in the problem of how the community meets the needs of children.

A concept which recognizes the role a school may hold in meeting many and diverse needs of children implies the importance of a careful study of how nonteaching personnel may be employed and/or volunteer services utilized to free the teacher from routine tasks.

The Yale-Fairfield Study concludes that:

The schools have a large and complex job to perform.

The schools are, and will probably continue to be, understaffed with fully trained teachers.

The schools need extra assistance if they are to continue to serve the broad needs of children and to provide expert professional instruction for their pupils.

The Yale-Fairfield study inquires:

What are the actual day-by-day tasks of teachers?

Which of these might be safely delegated to nonprofessional personnel?

How should nonteaching assistants be recruited, selected, trained, and utilized?

How does the employment of nonteaching assistants relate to the effectiveness of learning and to the attractiveness of teaching as a career?

What insight into the professional tasks of teachers might be gained by direct experiences as assistants in the classroom under the guidance of highly competent teachers?

How can this experience be provided for prospective teachers?

How can its effectiveness be measured?

CHAPTER VIII

THE WORK OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

The purpose of the study reported in this chapter is to provide background information about the nature and distribution of the elementary teacher's work, against which the effect of experimental programs may be judged. The existing definition of the teacher's tasks, the amount of time required for them, and the accepted patterns in which the work is scheduled must be reasonably well known before the influence of an experimental situation upon them can be ascertained.

Methods

The principal source of information used in this study was self-observation and record-keeping by cooperating teachers in the Fairfield school system. A series of preliminary observations made elsewhere was used as the basis for the construction of a daily activity record to be used for the notation, description, and time record of all the professional activities of the teacher on a given day. This form was tried out with a small group of Fairfield teachers, and the resulting data were compared with the initial series of reports by observers. After discussion of the form and reporting procedures by the participating teachers revisions were made and the procedures were set forth in an instruction sheet. A further check on the kind of data obtainable through self-observations of teaching was obtained by a "paired observation procedure" in which another teacher recorded classroom observations of teaching, using the same form for reporting. By this procedure substantially similar results were obtained.

Each cooperating teacher was asked to report his or her teaching activities, including professional work carried on outside of regular school hours, for five different days of the week, chosen at will within the period November 1 to December 5, 1954. This resulted in a sample for each teacher roughly equivalent to a week's teaching, exclusive of Saturday and Sunday, but not consisting of consecutive days.

Reports on teaching were received from 96 Fairfield elementary school teachers, of whom 79 submitted reports for all five days. Twelve sets of reports were reserved for separate analysis because of various peculiarities of the teaching situation, such as double sessions, combined grades, etc. The remainder, 67 sets of reports in all, were distributed over the school grades as follows:

Grade	Number of teachers	
	Sample	Total in system
K.	11	21
1	15	26
2	12	30
3	9	26
4	6	20
5	7	22
6	7	21

Because the reporting forms had been so designed as to leave the cooperating teacher as much freedom as possible in describing the various activities of the working day, a very careful examination of the returns was needed in order to discover the similarities and differences and to develop ways of handling the data that would be reasonably well suited to the material.

The Work Week

The working hours of schoolteachers include not only the time when school is in session but also the time they devote to their jobs outside of regular school hours. In this report these two parts of the total working time will be called "in-session" and "out-of-session" time, respectively. In-session time is generally determined by administrative action and varies only slightly from school to school. Within a given school all teachers, except perhaps the kindergarten and first grade teachers and occasionally a specialist, ordinarily ob-

serve the same hours for opening and dismissal. Thus part of the total working time is more or less standardized. Out-of-session time, on the other hand, i.e. the time devoted to job-related work before school hours in the morning, during the lunch period, after school hours in the afternoon, and during the evening, is much more flexible. There are usually certain specified minimum requirements as to time of arrival at and departure from the school, and often there are assigned lunchroom responsibilities at noon; but these add up to only a fraction of the total time requirement for professional work that the teacher typically must accomplish outside of school hours. The total out-of-session time requirements of the job depend very much on the individual teacher's method of organizing the work, the need for special preparation, and many other factors, and accordingly it is quite variable not only as between teachers but for the same teacher at different times.

In many respects the data concerning kindergarten teachers proved to be sufficiently different from the rest of the data obtained so that separate treatment was thought desirable. Not only the amounts of time but also the nature of the work of the kindergarten teacher are different. To include the kindergarten data with that of the other teachers would distort both. The total working time of the eleven kindergarten teachers for the five days reported by each ranged from 31 hrs., 30 min. to 44 hrs., 10 min., the average being 37 hrs., 15 min. Probably some additional time was devoted to professional work on week ends which is not included in these totals. In-session time for kindergarten teachers ranged from 21 hrs., 25 min. to 25 hrs. with an average of 23 hrs., 10 min., whereas out-of-session time ranged from 6 hrs., 30 min. to 20 hrs., 25 min. with an average of 14 hrs., 5 min. Thus about 60 per cent of the kindergarten teachers' total working time was applied during school hours and the remainder at other times.

A sample of 24 teachers of the six elementary grades, four from each grade, was used to determine whether any obvious trends of in-session, out-of-session, or total time in relation to grade level could be found. Since the variations that appeared bore little or no relation to grade level, except that in-session time in the first grade was somewhat below that of the other grades, the sample as a

whole was used as the basis for estimating the total five-day work week for teachers in these grades. Somewhat greater accuracy could have been attained by the use of all 67 available records, but in view of the approximate nature of the records, especially as to out-of-session time, the improvement did not seem to justify the additional tabulations that would have been required.

The total working time of the 24 teachers of grades one to six for the five days reported by each teacher ranged from 29 hrs., 45 min. to 58 hrs., 40 min., the average being 39 hrs., 30 min. Other studies show that from two to five hours of professional work are performed by elementary grade teachers on week ends. As noted previously, the variation of in-session time is much less marked than that of out-of-session time, the former having a range of 22 hrs., 30 min. to 27 hrs., 30 min. with an average of 25 hrs., 30 min., the latter a range of 5 hrs., 55 min. to 33 hrs., 20 min. with an average of 14 hrs.

A rather detailed analysis of the use of in-session time as reported by Fairfield teachers was undertaken. The original data appeared to represent careful record-keeping, for the most part, and ample descriptive material generally accompanied each entry in the time column. Moreover it is during school hours, of course, that most of the teacher's direct work with children occurs. Thus the relative emphasis on the various types of activity comprising the total in-session time is important.

Because of the different nature of the entire program, kindergarten teaching cannot be described in the same terms as teaching in the grades. For kindergarten children the school week was found to consist of five daily sessions, either in the morning or in the afternoon, each session being of two-and-a-quarter to two-and-a-half hours' duration. As each teacher generally had both morning and afternoon groups, ten sessions per teacher per week constituted the usual assignment. A more complete description of the kindergarten teacher's work will be found further on under the heading "The Work Day."

Enough similarity was found among the reports of the 56 teachers of grades one to six to permit the use of the same set of categories for the classification of activities, regardless of grade

level, with relatively few departures from the terminology of the original records. Six main areas or groups of activities and twenty-two specific periods or activities were used, as shown below:

1. Routines
 - Entering school
 - Opening exercises
 - Collecting money
 - Lavatory
 - Snack and rest
 - Clean-up and dismissal
2. Fundamentals
 - Reading
 - English language and literature
 - Arithmetic
 - Spelling
 - Penmanship
3. Social area
 - Social studies
 - Science
 - Foreign language
 - Health and safety
4. Fine arts
 - Music
 - Art
5. Physical area
 - Recess
 - Physical education
6. Miscellaneous
 - Assemblies and rehearsals
 - Released time for religious instruction
 - Other and unspecified

Actually neither the set of broad areas nor the set of specific activity headings are quite mutually exclusive, and in practice it is sometimes hard to determine whether a particular activity belongs

under one heading or another, since it may contribute to both. For instance, one first grade teacher reported a period devoted to music and numbers, in which simple number concepts were developed in conjunction with singing. Since good teachers often provide for activities that serve two or more purposes at once some arbitrary decisions as to classification had to be made. In doubtful cases, however, it was often possible from the descriptions provided to identify a main focus even in such multipurpose activities.

The particular combination of activities to be grouped together as an area is, of course, an arbitrary matter, but there is a common tendency both among educators and among the general public to group certain subjects together under such general headings. Undoubtedly there is some validity in such general schemes of classification, and there is a certain convenience in having the material organized in a manner that corresponds with common usage. This applies particularly to the so-called fundamentals, an area of perennial public concern. In general the groupings set forth above correspond with usage, except that routines are usually not set apart as a separate group. Our analysis, however, seemed to show that certain routines are an important and distinct part of the school program throughout the grades and accordingly they are represented as such. The inclusion of foreign language in the elementary curriculum, a recent innovation in Fairfield, is somewhat unusual. It is included in the social area because of its close connection with the study of peoples of other lands, a dominant theme in the social studies, and because in the teaching of foreign language in Fairfield this connection is stressed.

The apportionment of in-session time among the curriculum areas is given in Tables II and III. The salient points are the predominant concern with fundamental skills throughout the elementary grades, the increasing emphasis on the social area as the grade level advances, and the somewhat declining emphasis on routines, fundamentals, and the physical areas as grade level advances. The entire decline in time devoted to routines occurs in the lower grades.

The general picture based on averages does not, of course, show the variation among teachers. No individual teacher's time was

divided exactly as shown in these tables, but in each case the pattern of time distribution would bear a marked resemblance to that represented by the average for the appropriate grade. Teachers tended to be somewhat more alike in the amounts of time devoted to fundamentals, routines, and the physical area than in the amounts devoted to the social area, the fine arts and the miscellaneous activities.

TABLE II
Average Number of Minutes Per Week
Devoted to Specified Curriculum Areas, by Grades

	Grade					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Routines	290	194	153	133	178	154
Fundamentals	690	828	807	678	640	654
Social area	84	145	180	272	286	361
Fine arts	135	147	130	178	172	152
Physical area	158	148	144	236	146	116
Miscellaneous	75	88	129	137	146	127
Total, in-session	1,432	1,550	1,543	1,534	1,568	1,564

TABLE III
Per Cent of Total In-Session Time
Devoted to Specified Curriculum Areas, by Grades

	Grade					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Routines	20.2	12.5	9.7	8.7	11.4	9.9
Fundamentals	48.2	53.6	52.6	44.4	40.8	41.8
Social area	5.9	9.3	11.6	17.7	18.2	23.1
Fine arts	9.4	9.5	8.5	11.5	11.0	9.7
Physical area	11.0	9.5	9.3	8.8	9.3	7.4
Miscellaneous	5.3	5.6	8.3	8.9	9.3	8.1
Total, in-session	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Out-of-Session Time

In estimating the amount of out-of-session time a teacher devotes to the job a problem arises. Which of the many activities carried on outside of regular school hours should be counted as part of the teacher's professional job and which should be counted as normal outside activities comparable to those of citizens in any other occupation? Any particular line of demarcation between the teacher's job and outside activities is certain to be somewhat arbitrary, but in order to provide a fair comparison between teaching and other occupations the principle of accountability may be applied: All those work activities for which a person may be held accountable should be included in the definition of the job. Thus teaching would include such activities as extra instruction or supervision of children at school outside of school hours, planning lessons and preparation of teaching materials, attending staff meetings and other required group meetings, conferences and interviews with parents and others in relation to schoolwork, and preparation of required reports. It would not include participation in voluntary activities nor activities directed toward professional advancement.

In the daily records provided by cooperating teachers in Fairfield some differences as to the inclusion of borderline activities was apparent. While all teachers reported time devoted to supervision of children and preparation for teaching, many did not report the time it took them to fill out the self-observation records, evidently regarding this as an "extra" (participation was voluntary) and not part of their regular jobs. It seems probable, too, that the reporting of community-related activities bordering on the teacher's professional tasks was incomplete.

In handling the data on out-of-session time the following categories were used:

1. Supervision of children
 - Duty-discipline
 - Service and Junior police
 - Rehearsals and sports
 - Remedial
 - Unclassified

2. Work with adults
 - Faculty
 - Parents
 - Formal reports
 - Unclassified
3. Preparation
 - Subject matter
 - Lesson plans
 - Auxiliary materials
 - Correcting papers
 - Report cards
 - Mechanics
 - Housekeeping
 - Unclassified
4. Community
 - P.T. A.
 - Educational association (local, state, and national)
 - Credit courses
 - Civic affairs
 - Unclassified
5. Yale-Fairfield Study
6. Free time at school (lunch period, no duty)
7. Unspecified (time indicated but not accounted for)

Of these, only time attributed to the first three main classifications was included in the totals for out-of-session time reported earlier and to be reported below. The reader may make his own adjustments with the aid of data provided in the text if he wishes to use a different basis for inclusion of time in the teacher's total job.

The data on out-of-session time are unsatisfactory from a statistical viewpoint. The lack of a detailed reporting form gave the cooperating teachers freedom to include whatever they chose in their work descriptions but did not make for uniformity of reporting. Some of the out-of-session time can be classified only under one of the general categories above, whereas some can be put under the more detailed headings.

The analysis of out-of-session time is based on the sample of 24 teachers mentioned earlier in connection with the total work week. No distinction between grades appeared to be useful in view of the limitations inherent in the material. The distribution of the average amounts of out-of-session time classified under the first three main categories above is given in minutes per week in Table IV with subclassification according to period of the day. Besides the amounts of time shown in the table, 14 of the 24 teachers in the sample reported some time devoted to one or more of the activities grouped under the heading "Community," the average amount of time for those reporting any being 239 minutes per week (approximately four hours). Only 15 of the teachers reported the time it took to keep their Yale-Fairfield Study records, which required 155 minutes per week, on the average, for those reporting. Free time at school (lunch periods without supervisory duties) amounted to 158 minutes per week on the average, whereas time the use of which was unspecified amounted to an average of only 30 minutes per week.

It may be interesting to consider the time requirements of several of these types of activity as per cents of the total work week of 39 hours and 30 minutes, the average time reported for the 24 teachers in the sample. Supervision of children represented 5.3 per cent of the total — during the lunch hour alone it was 3.8 per cent — while work with adults and preparation represented 5.0 per cent and 25.1 per cent of the total, respectively. Considered in terms of the period of the day, out-of-session time occurring before school, in the noon period, after school, and in the evening amounted to 8.3 per cent, 6.6 per cent, 9.4 per cent, and 11.1 per cent of the total weekly working time, respectively.

The Work Day

Although it is practically impossible to determine what, in fact, constitutes a typical work day for an elementary school teacher, since no two days are very much alike, yet a generalized description abstracted from the daily records of many teachers may convey some fairly accurate ideas about the nature of daily events, the sequences in which they frequently occur, and the ways in which the teacher and the pupils are involved in them together. The

TABLE IV
Average Number of Minutes Per Week
Devoted to Specified Types of Out-of-Session Activity, by Periods

Type of Activity	Period				Total
	Before school	Noon period	After school	Evening	
Supervision of children	19	89	17	—	125
Work with adults	27	9	56	17	119
Preparation	150	59	140	245	594
Total, Out-of-session	196	157	223	262	838

reader should bear in mind that the teacher as a professional worker is free to deviate from the usual practice, to make improvements here and there from his own point of view, and to adjust activities to immediate situations that may arise. The daily work, therefore, is exceedingly varied, and whatever apparent uniformities there are to be found in it are largely due to abstraction.

Some teachers plan their daily work in rather minute detail whereas others plan it only in a general way, but many unforeseeable incidents may arise to alter ready-made plans. For instance, a teacher who has involved the pupils in the planning process may find that the absence of a key person for a particular project necessitates some readjustment of the day's activities. Generally the daily schedule is not a rigid design requiring the starting and stopping of specified activities at exactly the time prescribed. There is, however, a tendency among teachers to order the sequence and duration of periods in a fairly regular way and to adhere within somewhat flexible limits to a definite pattern.

Naturally the organization of the work day reflects the maturity level of the pupils, so that in each advancing grade the typical pattern would be somewhat different. Because of the individual variation among teachers, however, no attempt has been made to trace particular features of the daily schedule up through the grades. A

generalized representation of the work day at the kindergarten and fourth grade levels will be presented here merely by way of illustration of the sort of organization a typical teacher might use in planning a day's activity.

These schedules appear to be more rigid than they actually are. Departures from the planned schedule at the discretion of the teacher are frequent and should be considered normal. Also the pattern varies from day to day — comparatively few teachers followed a daily schedule in the sense of a single sequence of activities recurring day after day. Moreover there were a number of teachers among those reporting whose methods of organizing their work are not well represented by the patterns that are most typical of the group as a whole. Their schedules could best be described, perhaps, by the statement that there is no typical pattern among them, except for routine activities relating to the school as a whole.

TYPICAL SCHEDULE — KINDERGARTEN

<i>Out-of-session</i>	<i>In-session</i>	<i>Period or Activity</i>
8:10-8:35		Before school
8:35-8:45		Entering
	8:45-9:00	Opening
	9:00-9:50	Work period
	9:50-10:05	Recess
	10:05-10:20	Lavatory, lunch, and rest
	10:20-10:40	Rhythms
	10:40-10:55	Story
	10:55-11:10	Singing
	11:10-11:15	Summary and dismissal
11:15-12:00		Preparation
12:00-12:35		Free time (lunch)
12:35-12:45		Entering
	12:45-12:55	Opening
	12:55-1:40	Work period
	1:40-1:55	Recess
	1:55-2:10	Lavatory, lunch, and rest
	2:10-2:25	Rhythms
	2:25-2:40	Story
	2:40-2:55	Singing
	2:55-3:00	Summary and dismissal
3:00-3:45		After school
7:30-8:15		Evening preparation

TYPICAL SCHEDULE – FOURTH GRADE

<i>Out-of-session</i>	<i>In-session</i>	<i>Period or Activity</i>
8:10-8:45		Before school
	8:45-9:00	Opening
	9:00-9:35	Arithmetic
	9:35-9:55	Spelling
	9:55-10:00	Lavatory
	10:00-10:15	Recess
	10:15-10:55	Reading
	10:55-11:10	Foreign language
	11:10-11:30	Study or other activity
11:30-12:00		Free time (lunch)
12:00-12:30		Playground duty
	12:30-12:50	English
	12:50-1:30	Music (or art)
	1:30-1:45	Reading
	1:45-2:00	Recess
	2:00-2:35	Social studies
	2:35-2:50	Clean-up and dismissal
2:50-3:40		After school
7:15-8:30		Evening preparation

In the foregoing schedules it will be noticed that the duration of periods varies but that by far the most frequent are periods of fifteen, twenty, or thirty minutes' duration, reflecting a rather strong tendency among the teachers reporting to adhere to such periods. Some activities such as reading are often distributed over two or even three periods in the same day.

An effort was made to summarize the descriptive material from the self-observations in order to reveal more fully the nature of the work as perceived by the teachers themselves. In the pages that follow will be found a series of paragraphs representing in somewhat condensed form, but so far as possible in the teachers' own words, the statements appearing under "Teacher's Activities" and "Children's Activities" in the daily activity records. These paragraphs provide a composite picture of the immediate work situation corresponding with each item in the daily work schedule and have been arranged roughly in the sequence of their occurrence in a typical school day.

In a general way each paragraph is representative of the prac-

tice of the cooperating teachers in the Fairfield school system. Not all of the activities listed, of course, would normally occur on a given day with a single teacher. On the other hand, not all the activities that *might* be undertaken by some teacher at some time in connection with the subject or category in question are included either. The intent has been to list a number of representative and informative descriptions, each a concrete instance of the type of activity represented by the heading, so as to illustrate the number and range of the specific actions that are grouped together in each category and the interdependence of teacher and pupil actions in the teaching-learning process. The length of the paragraphs does not reflect either the importance or the number of specific actions actually reported in the respective categories. It is more related to their variety, since the listing was discontinued in each case when the new instances encountered in the reports seemed merely to repeat previous items, but this relationship is not precise. The detailed descriptive material will have served its purpose if the reader is convinced that the task of the elementary teacher includes the interpretation of the culture to children by means of a multitude of concrete experience opportunities many of which call for originality and breadth of understanding on the part of the teacher. It is hoped, also, that the reader will perceive that the use of this particular set of categories does not in any way imply a given method of classroom instruction, as various methods are exemplified among the many specific actions reported.

The descriptions of kindergarten and fourth grade activities given herewith illustrate the descriptions originally prepared for all the elementary grades.

Description of Activities in Kindergarten (Based on reports of eleven teachers)

Before school. Open windows, adjust shades, dust piano, desk, and large tables; water plants, feed fish; decorate room with something children made; talk with other teachers and principal; collect mail; read notices; faculty meeting, committee meeting; collect money or opinions from other teachers; work on plan book, stencils, repro-

graph, budget; talk with parent; give piano lesson; yard duty; follow-up on some pupil.

Entering. Help take off coats, rubbers, unbutton that hard button at the top; conversation; free play; take up money, notes, signed slips; take roll.

Opening. Good morning, song ("America," "Star Spangled Banner"); salute flag, say prayer; find day on calendar; talk about weather and weather symbols; health inspection — check illness, teeth, hair, hands, and fingernails; take up money for milk, crackers, Red Cross, P.T.A. dues; "show and tell" and sharing experiences; choose helpers and buddies for the day; plan the day's work; teach any new thing necessary for day's work, such as how to use easel or mix paint.

Work period. American Indian project; Thanksgiving — draw and color a pumpkin; cut out and decorate canoes; work on fruit baskets in color; make Indian hats and headdresses; having a store — making signs, paper money, "buying and selling"; working with clay, with paints and easel, sewing cards, workbench, building blocks, weaving mats, finger paint; children play in doll corner, play with blocks, puzzles, or drums when finished with project work; children show work they have completed to others; teacher makes comments on work done.

Recess. Group games—Follow the Leader, Cat and Mouse, Muffin Man, Looby Loo, Farmer-in-the-Dell, Shadow Tag; children play on slides, jungle gym, or with balls; gardening — dig, hoe, plant bulbs for next spring.

Lavatory, lunch, and rest. "Filing," wash hands, get drink; helpers set tables as host and hostess pass out straws, milk, graham crackers; say prayer; applesauce made yesterday by class for applesauce party today; eat quietly; teacher directs conversation toward manners — "haste makes waste" (in eating); say "No, thank you" or "Excuse me"; children clean up their own mess, putting trash and garbage in proper containers; rest; listen to record (lullaby); teacher pulls down shades; children recline on towels on floor; "dinner dancing" — each boy selects a girl partner and they dance; sandman for the day sprinkles "sand" on others' eyes; teacher leaves room for coffee break.

Rhythms. Children skip, march, hop, gallop, walk, tiptoe in time to piano; children imitate the sounds of a record with rhythm instruments; teacher teaches "fast" and "slow"; teacher skips with children ("We decided the music told us to skip"); imitate Indian chiefs' rhythm; play train to music.

Story. Teacher reads "What We Eat"; children listen and discuss; teacher plays "Indian Boy"; children listen and then make up their own stories; children look at illustrations while teacher reads.

Singing. Teacher sings "Oh! Susannah" twice, and then children sing it; children learn and sing new Thanksgiving song; dramatize song — children make up and act out their own interpretation of the song.

Summary and dismissal. Teacher asks about day's work; review of new things learned; teacher reminds children about P.T.A. notes, milk money, Junior Red Cross; give out book-of-the-month blanks; pass out Indian hats made during day; when necessary teacher helps put on rubbers (too small), buttons top button, helps start zippers; teacher watches while children cross street or board bus.

Noon period. On yard duty; work on capital outlay blank and take to office; take mail out of box; look for principal to discuss work-books; work on store unit; record eye-test results in register; fix room in preparation for Christmas; have lunch; hang up Indian pictures; four children come into room and play with what they want to; cafeteria duty; care for child (mother helping with hot lunch).

After school. Go to basement to get a child — mother waiting in car with two babies; work on plan book; have discussion with associate psychologist; plan for next week, straighten room, and order audio-visual materials; talk with parent (not a scheduled conference); finish cutting patterns to decorate bulletin board; work on Christmas materials for school; dust cabinets; trace feathers, cut paper for Indian headpieces that children will make next week; write up library book list.

Description of Activities in Grade Four (Based on reports of twelve teachers)

Before school. Plans for following week, prepare room for day;

meet children in auditorium because of rain; answer children's questions; put board work on; get children started with books at their desks and ready for morning exercises; on duty on playground; conference with parent who wants child put in higher reading group; conference with principal concerning this child; prepare seatwork activities for morning session; go to playground to meet class; look over day's plans and prepare for them; yard duty; check papers; write up plan book; put social studies and arithmetic assignments on board; talk with fifth grade teacher; get clay from attic, soften in balls; prepare materials for clay work; Christmas presents for parents; mimeographing words for Christmas songs; preparation of papers, books, notices on board; prepare room; write reading assignments on board; also "Other things to do" when children complete work; correct papers; use rexograph; try new phonograph records; grade and hang art papers; preparation for work; interview with parent; guidance for slow learner.

Opening exercises. Boy leads prayer; flag salute and song; teacher helps child who is taking charge to get group's attention; reads from Bible; calls on children who have something to tell class; children participate in conversation; children salute flag, sing "America"; say Lord's Prayer; tell experiences from recent events and are allowed to ask riddles, usually taken from children's magazines; teacher observes only; say prayer; discuss first thing to do in making book report (during parents' tea yesterday afternoon mothers asked questions that made me realize that some children are confused about requirements); class repeats prayer led by leader for day; class salutes flag, sings "America"; Lord's Prayer; flag salute; national anthem; direct singing; announcements; child leader, prayer, salute, sharing experiences; class leader leads class in Lord's Prayer, salute to flag, "Star Spangled Banner"; teacher reads story; health inspection; morning leader organizes class; prayer, salute, song; teacher leads exercises; plays piano.

Arithmetic. Timed test in multiplication facts; explain arithmetic seatwork; teacher goes around to individual seats and corrects spelling papers (done in preceding period); starts children who have finished (arithmetic) on practicing writing; concept of "breaking into equal parts," fractions, teacher develops theme by use of

blackboards; supervises and directs children who cut sheets of colored paper into two, four, and eight parts; reviews meaning of fractions, sends children to board to find fractional parts of numbers, children work examples, correct and discuss mistakes; writes examples on board; children copy and add and subtract in dollars and cents; leading multiplication game, children giving answers and calling on next child; leading discussion on review of time; children recite seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months, year, leap year; helping and checking individuals, written assignments; direct pupils in reading and discussing; children read and discuss written problems; help an individual who is a slow reader; child does written problems; teacher conducts flash-card drill; explains problems to group; children respond with answers to flash-cards; read and solve problems orally and in written work from blackboard; stimulate a discussion on money; children list coins and bills they generally use; place empty boxes for grocery store on the table; review multiplication with carrying; introduce method without writing in small figures; discuss Wednesday papers individually with four children; children put wrong examples from Wednesday on board; check each other's work; written evaluation lesson.

Lavatory. Supervision; children get coats and file to lavatory; then line up to go out to recess; filing, get drinks, etc.; teacher checks to make sure everyone had cleaned up; children get coats on; monitors take boys and girls to lavatory.

Recess and physical education. Teacher corrects letters; get children ready to go outside; take them out and wait for teacher on duty; work on papers; assistant principal; call about music teacher; girls jump rope; boys practice passing and catching football; formal point system for scoring; completed and incompleting passes; teacher supervises and participates; direct games — both boys and girls play dodge ball; P.M. teacher on playground; watch children keep score, etc.; children choose games to play; boys play baseball; girls play Snatch the Bacon; children play stoop tag or Keep Away; observe children's ability to act as game leaders; children play Dog and Bone and Simon Says; direct dribble-relay; two teams (previously organized); each participant dribbles ball to

fixed spot, throws it back to next in line; games; teacher supervises; teacher explains new game in afternoon; children play Automobile Race.

Spelling. Spelling and penmanship, children write letters to Mr. U. for showing pictures; dictate spelling test to class except slow spellers; children write spelling test in spelling rate books; dictate spelling to slow spellers; drill new words for week, children answer questions concerning long and short sounds of vowels in this week's words, consonant blends, similarity to known words, number of syllables, etc.; dictating words, writing words in syllables on board as child dictates; spelling words in two teams; dictate final spelling test for lesson ten; give words to children who wrote them; go over words for tomorrow; dictate list of words; children write list of words for the week; drill class on mistakes made in Wednesday test; board illustrations; drill orally.

Reading. Give directions for reading in workbook and on board; class I assigned work while class II is in class and vice versa; drill on sounds; explain work to different groups; let groups that need no explanation start; children read in various books and do workbook exercises, teacher reads with slow child; at present time there are three groups in reading; routine varies but on this date all three groups were engaged in reading activities at one time; this is not the usual procedure; the highest and middle groups were engaged in silent reading; new words had been discussed Friday and children were reading both for pleasure and to see use of new words in sentences where meaning might be clarified; third group using a low third grade text did oral work; teacher set up vocabulary lists (and worked with slow readers); word drill; sound of letter *s* in such words as "class," "safe," "easy"; use of prefix "un-" using words from reading lesson; use of hyphenated words from reading lesson; question-answer period; children read silently, do follow-up exercises in workbook; find words with long and short vowel sounds; silent reading and activities while one group reads to me; Group III children read and discuss "Porky and the Salt Lick"; they make individual choices of the stories they would like to tell in this nature unit; Group II children are introduced to "Our Northwestern Neighbors," products of the section, people living

there, to the use of the Pan-American Highway; direct reading in group; one group in class with teacher; one group doing workbook; one group answering questions from the board; repeated with different group later; explain seatwork activities to groups reading silently; conduct word drill with oral-reading group; ask questions concerning material read; silent-reading groups do written seatwork; oral-reading group participated in word drill, oral reading, searched for answers to questions; place assignment on board; children work on work book, oral reading, matching words; one group explained, completed, and checked two pages in workbook; one group does arithmetic problems; one group does table display for Thanksgiving — painting paper for ocean and sky; review points of good book reports; direct reading; read and listen to own book reports.

Penmanship (combined with reading). Help poor writers; children do penmanship exercises; write words on board; suggest words to write beginning with "sp"; show and explain correct way of forming letter J; children practice, evaluate own papers.

Noon period. Cafeteria duty; eat lunch; correct papers; (class on double session); lunch duty; although a mother comes in to cover this period, it is the responsibility of one teacher to be present in the building to handle emergencies; supervise class eating lunch; work at desk; going over P.M. plans, etc.; prepare for afternoon; get boards clean; materials ready, papers, etc.; supervising lunchroom; conferences with other teachers about Christmas program; third grade songs — shepherds, angels, etc.; just plain sit, patrol girls supervise children; teacher visits room frequently to see if games are going on without too much disorder (indoor recess is difficult due to nearby upper grades having classes during our lunch period); went to playground to meet class; direct lunch for two grades (volunteer mother did not come); playground duty.

Social studies. Discussion of supplementary materials correlated with unit, guiding informational reading in connection with unit; lead discussion of chapter previously read; children answer questions and volunteer information; map work; review on settlement of Virginia; children answer teacher's questions; discuss reasons for settlement of Jamestown — the poor location, what the king

hoped to get from it, etc.; movie on Amazon River life; children compare life on this with that of Nile, and how both Egyptians and Brazilians depend on rivers; discuss jungle animals, daily rain, and ancient Indian civilizations; read and discuss; discuss why Pilgrims leave homeland; receives message on intercommunication system from Mr. Bowes.

English. Teacher supervises and guides written work (language and correct usage); children have choice of words and select correct one; had previously discussed this; (explain) how to tell a story to the class; children read to correct unnecessary "ands" in a paragraph; children practice common ending in "-ing"; planning with class a letter to take to parents with details of trip to New Haven; children decide the sentences that explain about the trip and copy from board; teacher leads discussion of commas in usage with word listings; blackboard demonstration explaining written work; oral discussion, examples, rules, why written assignment, making lists of things we eat, wear, buy, names; teacher observes and comments on characters' dramatic ability and interpretation of their parts; children rehearse play "Bookworms Don't Have To Bite"; discuss individual parts and how each might improve; children aid securing favorite stories; select and sign out books; read books; reading and English; read and listen to book reports.

French and Spanish. Miss Green teaches while regular teacher corrects multiplication fact sheets; special teacher, conversational French; write sentences on board; a listening and learning activity; children are learning dates, ages, counting games, and French version of Dog and Bone; lesson with Spanish teacher; regular teacher corrects papers; children listen and participate orally with special teacher; regular teacher corrects and records spelling mark; special teacher conducts Spanish lesson; room teacher corrects spelling papers; teaches class "El Rancho Grande"; counting; locating items.

Music. Special teacher comes in to give music lesson, while regular teacher erases boards, observes music class, gets out equipment for next class (art); fifth grade teacher takes group while regular teacher teaches science in fifth grade; special teacher (demonstrates) auto-harp; drills names of lines and spaces; children sing and

recite; singing for pleasure "Happy Wanderer"; "My Home's in Montana"; teacher introduces bass clef; singing; class sings Christmas program rehearsal; music supervisor explains music term "Hi-Fi"; supervisor plays records; children sing songs and listen to records; teaches new song connected with reading; review "Susan Blue"; children go to front line and sing "Old MacDonald"; teach song from record; two children pass books; one runs victrola; all sing.

Art. Introduce lesson; give choice of subjects and give out materials; demonstrate how to draw a simple turkey and man; children work out their own ideas with chalk and crayons; parent assisting teacher with small groups in beginning Christmas presents; children working with clay in groups; children working at desks with designs and social studies assignment when not working with clay; special art teacher, children draw and color pictures; special teacher, children make decorations.

Science. Give out paper and instructions for science test; dictate science test; film: teacher runs projector, children watch; begin study of social animals, honey bees; read to find out three kinds of honey bees in preparation for science reports; read aloud and discuss; section on "Air Has Weight"; in discussing some experiments we could do, we pointed out the steps scientists take to attempt to prove an idea; direct reading and discussion.

Health and safety. Conduct discussion of value and importance of good food; ask questions concerning review material, which children answer; children read from health books; discussion of what good health is; health inspection; teacher reads aloud from health book; class attends safety assembly, listens to speaker, watches two movies; see safety movie by A.A.A.

Clean-up and dismissal. See that all children get their clothes and see them outside; teacher directing clean-up; children wash hands, clean utensils, etc.; general clean-up of boards, desks, counters, etc.; dismissal; remind children of homework assignments; children place chairs on tables and pass; teacher observes lines in hall; prepares room for art, checks morning work of children who would be leaving for audiometer tests; clean up Thanksgiving table.

After school. Work on lesson plans for next day; committee meet-

ing, F.E.A.; correct language papers; bus duty; see children loaded on proper busses; faculty meeting; music teacher discusses usage of auto-harp; teacher works on plans for tomorrow; correct English papers; complete work on register; prepare plans for next day; get construction paper for art; dust boards which helpers didn't have time to do in order to make bus; parent conference; packing finished articles for drying; preparing coverings for unfinished work to be continued tomorrow; assemble papers; check to see room is in good order; put absentees in register; social committee meeting; grade four group meeting at another school; finish border; set up chairs for parents; visit with last year's classmates; clean closet; correct papers; clean blackboards and check bulletin boards.

Conclusions

The main outlines of the elementary curriculum in the Fairfield schools are brought clearly into view in this chapter and a considerable amount of illustrative detail is also provided. It was not originally intended that this study should be concerned with an examination of the curriculum with a view to recommending improvements, a task which falls within the responsibility of the Fairfield school authorities. Rather it was assumed that provision for a continuing program of curriculum improvement had already been made within the community but that account must be taken of the present curricular structure in any study of the work of the elementary teacher. Thus in the present chapter the curriculum has been used as part of the frame of reference, and the study has proceeded thence to the detailed activities of teachers and pupils in the teaching-learning process.

In the actual operation of a school system any careful consideration of the status of the curriculum and its translation into practice almost necessarily leads to evaluations. Perhaps the discussion of objectives in Chapter VI and some of the descriptive material of the present chapter will be useful to those who engage in these evaluations, but it is not felt that they provide sufficient basis in the absence of more specific knowledge of the needs of the community for a general evaluation of the curriculum to be made as

part of the present study. The working solution to the problem of balance is reached by teachers and school administrators together, subject to expressions of opinion from parents, employers, critics of education, etc., whose ideas tend to restrain and correct the thinking of the educators. The actual balance of emphasis at any one time is thus a result of many forces and is reached through the exercise of judgment by those in a position to take action. Perhaps the best way of evaluating the general balance of the elementary curriculum would be to submit it to the combined judgment of a well-qualified group of people who are familiar with the needs of children in general, with the broad problems and opportunities of the general culture, and with the particular conditions in Fairfield and the attitudes and desires of Fairfield people.

Individual teachers have much responsibility for maintaining a balance in their work and for determining whether various specific activities are justified by their educational value. The findings of this chapter may suggest to some teachers the analysis of the actual use of time in the classroom, as compared with its intended use, as a means toward this end. Also, an inventory of activities for a given period may reveal some that a teacher would wish to emphasize more or develop further and others that she would wish to subordinate. It is perilous for an outsider to attempt such judgments without intimate knowledge of the needs and stages of educational development of the individual pupils.

A very interesting comparison can be made between the ten objectives of elementary education listed in Chapter VI and the categories of teacher activity set forth in the present chapter. Nearly all the activities, reflecting the actual practice of teachers in their daily work, contribute simultaneously to many objectives. It is impossible, for example, to single out a particular activity or even a particular category of activities that corresponds with the objective of fostering good mental and emotional health, for connections can be traced to it from the most diverse components of the curriculum and cocurricular activities of the school. The reader will doubtless observe in connection with the details reported in this chapter that practically everything a teacher does in her daily work is somehow relevant to the objectives of education. The teacher's

problem, therefore, is more one of timing and placing emphasis where it is needed within the total program than it is one of discovering and eliminating totally irrelevant activities.

Conclusions as to the nature of the elementary teacher's work are less difficult. It is work of enormous variety so far as subject content is concerned — in fact, the elementary teacher is expected to interpret the whole culture to her pupils in a sufficiently simplified form to be understandable to them. The work is of enormous variety, also, in its demands upon the teacher's insight into human nature. Children are not perfectly predictable, understandable, and easily manipulated little automatons. The elementary teacher's job includes a tremendous amount of learning about individual children and the skillful utilization of the knowledge so acquired. Many relationships have an important bearing on the teacher's actions, as, for instance, the relationship between the habits and attitudes learned at home and those exhibited in the classroom. Therefore teaching must be rather flexible and non-mechanical.

Evidence of the flexibility in the teaching of the cooperating Fairfield teachers is found in the variation in the amounts of time devoted to specified activities. Variability, or relative variation, is measured statistically by the quotient of the standard deviation divided by the mean and must be evaluated on the basis of experience with other data. In comparison with other variable quantities encountered by the writer in a number of different fields it may safely be said that the variability in time devoted to particular teaching functions tends to be quite large.

A comparison between Chapter V on "The Professional Tasks of the Teacher" and the present chapter shows that practically everything the teachers reported doing in their daily work falls within the broad definition of "professional tasks" as seen by the conference group. Even those tasks we often call nonteaching duties may occasionally have great educational significance; for example, the collecting of money for hot lunches may be a routine task but it must be done in such a way that it contributes to rather than detracts from a wholesome climate for learning; and because family financial status may have a bearing on a child's ability to

contribute, the person handling the collections must use judgment and tact and needs a certain background of knowledge. Many routine activities may be used by creative teachers as means of knowing children better or for other distinctly educational ends. Therefore the attempt to segregate purely nonteaching duties from all others becomes an impossible task. Nearly everything a teacher does in the course of her daily work is potentially capable of challenging her at a high level of professional ability, though the occasions are rather unpredictable and may be quite infrequent.

From the preceding considerations it follows that, in experimentation with assistants to the classroom teacher, tasks cannot be assigned strictly on a basis of teaching vs. nonteaching duties or professional vs. routine functions. To be sure, there are parts of a teacher's daily work that an assistant could perform under supervision—a competent teacher might find a considerable variety of tasks she could delegate to an assistant *under certain conditions*—but the line of demarcation between teacher's work and assistant's work cannot be fixed by such simple definitions and may, in fact, be impossible to determine *a priori* at all. Furthermore, it appears inevitable that if a person is to assist a teacher in a classroom that person will perform many functions that properly fall within the definition of teaching.

In order adequately to safeguard the interests of children it would seem that carefully devised restrictions should be placed on the use of assistants. First, they should be selected on the basis of character qualifications, personal habits, motivation, etc. no less stringent than those required of fully qualified teachers. Other qualifications, to be enumerated elsewhere, are also important. Next, the teacher in charge, before delegating specific tasks, should make sure the assistant has a sufficient grasp of their educational import to ensure adequate performance at that time. This means, in effect, that the assistant should be learning to be a teacher under the instruction of the teacher to whom she is assigned. Otherwise many essential but subordinate teaching functions might be performed in a perfunctory manner and fail to contribute as they should to the total result. Finally, the teacher in charge should recognize and utilize the special knowledge and skills of the assistant and be

aware of her peculiar limitations in mastery of subject matter. If, for example, an assistant happened to be weak in spelling, it would be well for the teacher in charge to prevent her pupils from learning the assistant's errors. Ideally, of course, the assistants should be in faultless command of what the pupils are expected to learn, but even fully qualified teachers may fall a little short of this. On the other hand, it may frequently happen that an assistant can make specific positive contributions to children's learning that the teacher cannot make herself, but with her mature understanding of the total situation the wise teacher can utilize these talents. In such a case it would be unthinkable to confine the assistant's function to nonteaching duties.

CHAPTER IX

INFERENCES, IMPLICATIONS, AND IMPRESSIONS GROWING OUT OF THE STUDY

As is usually the case in studies of the scope of the Yale-Fairfield Study in which several methods of research are employed, including the pooling of judgments and opinions, there have emerged at frequent intervals questions and problems which are no part of the study itself but whose solutions would simplify the investigation at hand if such solutions were available. The most significant problems of this type which we have encountered are listed here with brief comments.

What Related Questions and Problems Need Attention?

1. *Organization.* Most of the research now under way and previously done on elementary school problems assumes that our present organizational scheme characterized by a grade of progress for all students in each school is both fixed and desirable. Is this necessarily so? In the light of the history of school organization and our growing knowledge of child growth and development is it not possible that this organization is seriously outmoded? Is it not conceivable that the prevalent undesirable lock-step attitude with respect to many school problems is motivated by the rigidity of the year-grade scheme of organization, i.e. promotion and nonpromotion, subjects of study chopped up and organized in textbooks for individual grades, certification to teach in primary, or intermediate, or upper grades? Would there not be a better opportunity — because there would be more freedom — to provide for the needs of children if schools were organized by stages of growth or levels of achievement rather than by year-grades? As a first step in the study of reorganization experimentation might be conducted with the unit of organization expanded so as to include the work now found in several grades, i.e. a primary unit cover-

ing the span now conceived of as kindergarten and the first three grades, an intermediate unit covering the span of grades 4 to 6. Within these larger units of continuous progress of pupils is it not likely that the greater freedom of operation would make it possible to get better solutions than we now have to many of the problems now confronting teachers?¹

2. *School size.* With the rapid increase of the elementary school population now and predicted for the future, we are experiencing a tidal wave of elementary school building construction. There are no data to substantiate the opinion, but the impression is that there is a tendency to construct as large buildings as can possibly be financed. Although some inconclusive studies have been made of school size we do not know with any certainty what the optimum size of the good elementary school is. Would it not be helpful to face up to this problem and attack it experimentally? We know that the larger the school the greater the tendency to operate on a mass production basis. Could we not organize two or more schools within a single school plant? Following the house plan in the colleges the new Fairfield high school providing for more than 1,500 students will be organized as four schools of about 375 students each with separate faculties of 17 to 19 teachers in each "house."

3. *Class size.* Many studies of class size in the elementary school have been made. Most of them, however, were based on the premise that school organization is generally inflexible and especially that the year-grade plan with a single teacher for each class is not to be questioned. Furthermore it was usually assumed that all types of teaching in all fields of study demanded the same class size, roughly 20-25 students, and that skilled teachers would be available in sufficient numbers to supply our needs. Under present conditions of population growth and recognizing that qualitatively, at least, we shall have a permanent teacher shortage, should we not restudy and experiment further with class size in terms of various types of teaching services and learning situations? Is it not possible that in some ways of learning very large classes would function just as well, if not better, than small classes? By taking

¹See John Goodlad, "Ungrading the Elementary School," *N.E.A. Journal*, 44:170-1 and 295-6.

advantage of all possible opportunities for good mass teaching, could we not spread the services of teachers in such a way as to provide for some very small classes when they are necessary? Would it not be wiser to discover how large classes might properly be under certain circumstances than to assume that at all times the smaller the class the better the instruction and the more certain the learning?

4. *Certification.* The whole field of certification should be studied afresh and on the basis of established principles of certification rather than as a simple modification of current practices. Certification is designed to protect children from the malpractice of charlatans. To some extent existing regulations accomplish this end. They certainly keep out of teaching the obviously unfit. It is highly probable, however, that they also keep out of teaching many talented young people who would make superior teachers. This is largely due to the heavy weighting in certification requirements of specific course credits both academic and professional. No one knows exactly what combination of courses is essential to good teaching. Every one knows that teachers having identical programs of preservice study vary enormously in teaching skill and effectiveness. Would it not be advisable to devise certification requirements which include basic academic and professional courses of tested value but which place more emphasis than is the case at present upon the judgment of the faculties of institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers? Would we not be on safer ground if we were more rigorous in the approval of institutions legally permitted to train teachers, seeing to it that they have adequate physical resources and adequate personnel as well as sound, unprejudiced knowledge of the needs of teachers of children and then rely heavily upon the recommendation of these approved institutions for initial probationary certification?

5. *Information about schools.* There seems to be an appalling ignorance on the part of the public concerning learning theory, teaching procedures, the role of the school, and the role of the community in the education of children. Should we not pay more attention to these matters in teachers' meetings, P.T.A. meetings, and with other community groups? Would it not be advisable to

learn what kinds of materials should be prepared for the education of school patrons along these lines? Is it not an indictment of educational leadership when a single book of seriously questionable worth can sweep the entire nation off its "pedagogical feet"?

6. *Salaries based on merit.* One of the most frequently listed reasons for not selecting classroom teaching as a career is the fact that accomplished teachers cannot be adequately paid in relation to their preparation if they remain in classrooms. Salary schedules based largely on years of service do not provide for the proper recognition of the really superior teacher. The superior teacher must either remain underpaid or he must move into administration or supervision. Through research and experimentation could we not develop workable salary schedules based on merit so as to keep our best teachers in our classrooms? This will be a difficult task but sooner or later it must be done. An important by-product of such a study would be the focusing of attention on the superior teacher and finding out what makes him so, and also finding out how to use his talents to the best advantage for the largest number of pupils.

7. *Conventional operational features affecting the school program.* In the complexity of our great system of organized education there are of necessity many operational activities designed to keep the machinery running smoothly. There is considerable evidence that smoothness of operation has become a fetish to the extent that the activities involved in it take precedence over basic principles in the determination of school programs. For example, the bus transportation of children often determines the length of the school day. Administrators are often forced to spend more time on routing busses than they do in the study of the learning problems of children. Would it not be profitable to re-examine the whole structure of operational processes to discover their effect on the school program? Is it not possible that many outmoded practices persist in the schools? Should we assume that present organizational practices are the best we can devise and continue using them and making adjustments to them with complacency?

8. *Role of the school.* A broad concept of the role of the school which at the same time recognizes the necessity of cooperation

with other social agencies poses many problems. Among them are the development of techniques for cooperative study and cooperative action on the part of the school and other agencies involved in the broad education of children. We must learn how to organize the school so as to free the trained professional teacher so he can devote a major part of his time and energy to the achievement of the unique tasks of the school. In order to learn exactly what the role of the school is, we must learn how to make sociological studies to discover how individual communities meet all the needs of children. We must learn better how to prepare and how to use teachers so that through them the school can play its role well. We must learn better how to staff the schools with both teaching and nonteaching personnel.

Since the study has been in progress much related literature has been carefully examined, a heavy correspondence has been carried on, and many group discussions have been held. From these sources as well as from our own data many suggestions for the improvement of practice have been gathered. The most significant ones are listed here in two categories: recruitment and job improvement.

What Suggestions Are There for the Recruitment of Teachers?

1. *Salaries.* It is generally recognized that if we are to attract and hold good teachers salaries must be comparable to those paid in competing vocations and they must be adequate in terms of existing economic conditions. Improvement has been made but teachers' salaries are still low in comparison with the importance of the work, preparation required, and esteem in which the work of the elementary teacher is held.²

2. *Competing occupations.* In planning salary schedules school administrators should keep in close touch with supply and demand, and salaries paid in secretarial work, nursing, and social service work, and they should watch opportunities for employment in business, engineering, and accounting since these are the fields most likely to compete for the services of the same groups from which teachers are recruited.

²For an analysis of teachers' salaries in relation to dollar values, see "Teaching Salaries Then and Now," *The Fund for the Advancement of Education, Bulletin No. 1*, 1955.

3. *Men teachers* If more men teachers are desired in the elementary schools salary schedules must take into account the family needs most men must meet. The fact that schools are largely staffed with single women undoubtedly accounts for the lag in salary increases and the relatively low salary standards prevailing.

4. *Retaining gifted teachers*. If gifted and well-qualified teachers are to be retained in classrooms, salary schedules should provide a wider range so that top salaries for teachers are comparable to those paid to principals and supervisors. See no. 6 above, "Salaries based on merit."

5. *Upgrading teacher preparation*. There is some evidence that the upgrading of teacher preparation programs in the teachers colleges will promote larger registration of first-rate students. If teaching is as important as we think it is, preparation for it should be dignified by admission requirements on as high a level as those of other professions. Funds must be made available and students must be of sufficiently high caliber so that teachers colleges can attract for their faculties just as great scholars as are to be found in other colleges. There must be no justification for looking upon students in preparation for teaching as an inferior college group or as receiving an inferior college education. They should have instruction of the same worth and quality and as good physical resources as do other students on college campuses. Too frequently the most dilapidated building on the campus is assigned to Education. Legislatures often deal more generously on a per-student basis with other state schools than they do with teachers colleges.

6. *Prestige*. The surest way to build up the prestige of elementary teaching is to set the standards high and keep them there. Prestige comes from recognized social importance of the work to be done and the quality of its performance. When standards are high more competent people will be attracted, better work will be done, and prestige will rise.³ The prestige of elementary teaching has risen enormously since there is a more nearly universal requirement of college graduation for certification. It would be difficult to estimate the damage which has been done to the profession of teaching by teachers colleges which have been too willing to lower their standards for the purpose of attracting students. It is very

³See *The High Standards Approach to Teacher Supply*, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, N.E.A. (1954).

doubtful whether in times of emergency established standards of admission to training should be ignored simply to legalize teaching of inferior quality. Arrangements in the schools to make available the services of well-qualified teachers to larger groups of students is probably the better alternative.

7. *Liberal arts colleges as a source.* Recently liberal arts colleges have manifested a growing interest in the preparation of teachers, especially for the elementary schools. Most of them, usually the smaller colleges of the community or regional type, have always trained teachers for the secondary schools. Many respondents to our questionnaires said they would have considered teaching if their colleges had provided good opportunities for teacher training. Colleges desiring to develop programs for the preparation of elementary teachers should take the assignment very seriously, recognizing that it is a highly professional task requiring specialized resources both in personnel and equipment. It is probably safe to say that our elementary teachers are the real professionals among all groups of teachers. Liberal arts colleges could be a great source of well-qualified elementary teachers if in their planning they approach the problems without prejudice and take advantage of what very competent scholars have learned about teaching and learning. Too often the attitude of liberal arts colleges toward elementary teaching as a profession tempts them to engage in practices on even a lower professional level than those they have so frequently decried in the teachers colleges.

8. *Challenge of teaching.* It is quite evident that the intellectual and spiritual challenges to be found in directing the growth and development of children should be brought vigorously to the attention of college professors and professional counselors. This is mainly the responsibility of teachers and administrators who have experienced such challenges.

9. *Influence of teachers.* Since it is evident that all teachers, whether they will it or not, exert great influence on young people's decisions to become teachers, their responsibility should be taken seriously and they should be encouraged to give widespread publicity to the nature of the teaching task, emphasizing its intellectual, creative, and leadership roles plus the opportunities it provides for

one's own growth and development. Many teachers made their decisions to teach while in the elementary school.

10. *College students.* Efforts through all possible means to increase the number of qualified students who go to college will pay off in recruitment for teaching. The increase will come largely from the middle and upper-lower economic groups of the population from which most of our teachers are drawn.

11. *Frontiers.* The frontiers of teaching should be deliberately dramatized. The need for research and the need to improve practices should be emphasized.

12. *Unusually successful teachers.* Studies should be made of classroom teachers who seem to be unusually successful in inspiring their students to become teachers. What are they like? What do they do?

13. *Information.* More information, more attractive factual materials about teaching should be prepared by teachers' organizations, state and local boards of education, and others for wide distribution among students, vocational counselors, parents, and the general public. (See no. 5, "Information about schools," above).

14. *Local responsibility.* Local school systems, anticipating their future needs, should feel responsible for directing more of their own graduates into preparation for teaching. The fact that recruitment is generally thought of as the job of the teacher-training institution accounts for some of the unfortunate practices frequently employed. Guidance officers in high schools should deliberately point out to all students of good personality, good character, and above average intelligence the rewards of teaching.

15. *Teaching-like experiences.* Boards of education and school administrators should provide the means to assist teachers in planning teaching-like experiences for students in the upper grades and high school. There is reason to believe that success in such exploratory experiences is related to the decision to become teachers.

16. *Effect of earlier marriage.* Part of the crisis due to the teacher shortage can be attributed to the trend toward earlier marriage. Homemaking more than all kinds of gainful employment competes for the services of young women who are teaching in the elementary schools. Many young women should not be per-

mitted to disappear permanently from the profession because of marriage. They should be officially listed and encouraged to come back to teaching when family situations permit. Through refresher courses and school contacts state educational officers would do well to make provision to keep alive the certification of leaving teachers.

17. *Teaching and homemaking.* Deliberate plans should be made to point out to young women the value to prospective homemakers of many professional courses for teachers. Introductory courses in child growth and development could be designed to be of value both for prospective teachers and prospective homemakers. By the same token young women should be made aware of the fact that after a short period of teaching followed by marriage it is now easily possible to return to teaching. While their children are young, young mothers who are liberal arts college graduates without professional training should have the opportunity to prepare in easy stages for teaching. The data show that a teacher in her early thirties is quite likely to continue teaching for thirty or more years.

How Should the Job of Elementary Teaching Be Modified To Make It More Attractive?

1. *Irrelevant requirements.* Teachers complain that they are required to spend many minutes of the teaching day in the performance of tasks only vaguely related to school objectives. Continuous studies should be made of how the time of teachers is used, and all tasks not clearly qualifying as directly or indirectly relevant to school objectives should be promptly eliminated from the school program. This will do no violence to the worthy concept of the community school. That concept does not imply that the schools are to espouse the functions of all other community agencies.

2. *Whole school responsibilities.* Many legitimate responsibilities of the schools *as a whole* have been delegated to individual classrooms thus provoking wasteful duplication of time and effort which absorb teaching energy. Classroom programs should be examined for the purpose of discovering these duplications and when found they should be centralized. For example, a central savings bank in the school can provide a more realistic experience for pupils than is possible in all individual classrooms. In some

communities the banks supply the schools with equipment and a school bank teller. This centralization of school activities need not deprive the teacher of using the child's experiences in them for further learning.

3. *In-service training.* Teachers complain of too many fruitless "professional" meetings and too many repetitious and uninspiring assignments under the heading of in-service training. Administrators should keep a jealous eye on such demands on teachers and see to it that they are not imposed upon to the detriment of the quality of their teaching.

4. *Class size.* Class size is still a serious question in the minds of teachers, so much so that many of them feel that all problems would be solved if classes were reduced in size. The problem is now acute in the minds of teachers because throughout the country classes have been increased in size without providing any assistance for teachers. The problem is further discussed in the first section of this chapter.

5. *Duties.* Next to salaries and opportunities for promotion in classroom teaching the two aspects of elementary teaching most frequently deplored both by teachers and young people giving consideration to teaching were the numerous duties to be performed aside from teaching and the prevalence of what they termed deadening routine tasks in teaching itself. It should be remarked that tasks classified as routine by college students were not always so classified by experienced teachers who see in these activities opportunities for real teaching. Of equal concern was the confining school day when the teacher is in continuous association with children for the entire day without even a noon-hour break.

If we admit three things, namely (1) that these are legitimate criticisms of the job of the elementary teacher acting as deterrents to the selection of teaching as a life career, (2) that under present conditions most of them are essential to institutional operation, and (3) that the increasing school population and teacher shortage will tend to increase them rather than to diminish them, then we must conclude that some kind of relief must be provided in order to save the situation.

If instruction is to be improved and the shortage of elementary

teachers is to be alleviated the professional services of our best teachers must be more widely spread, and this can be made possible only through the use of teaching assistants and a more flexible organization so as to implement in the schools a new concept of optimum class size or pupil-teacher ratio. See discussion of class size and reorganization in the first part of this chapter.

6. *Promotion.* High on the list of suggestions for making elementary teaching more attractive is the improvement of opportunities for promotion within the field itself. This would involve a classification of teachers based on merit with an appropriate salary schedule. Conceivably there could be four classifications of teachers under some such categories with proper designations as assistant teachers, beginning teachers, independent teachers, and master teachers.

Promotion from group to group would be based primarily on merit evaluated in a way which would guarantee fair treatment. This general plan has long been used in colleges and there is no reason why it should not be used successfully in schools. A salary schedule based on merit would make it possible, by paying master teachers enough, to retain their services as classroom teachers. A new and more flexible organization would provide opportunities for using the services of our best teachers for larger groups.

7. *Not an easy job.* In considering ways of improving the attractiveness of elementary teaching it should be kept in mind that good teaching will never be an easy job. At best it will involve some drudgery and the performance of some duties which will be drab indeed unless teachers can see clearly the relationship between these duties and the more inspiring aspects of the job.

8. *Professional preparation.* Involved in all of these proposals is the question of appropriate professional training for teachers. Many respondents to questionnaires, both teachers and college students, protested because of the character and quality of teacher-training programs. Especially were they critical of many courses in education. It seems advisable, therefore, in experimental work with assistant teachers, or for that matter with teachers operating at any level of proficiency, that the experimental projects should include consideration of essential preparation. Respondents to

questionnaires report that close and early identification of students in the preparation program with schools and children will make it more challenging.

Intrinsically, elementary teaching is a most satisfying profession possessing most of the attributes desired by young people seeking rewarding careers. Good teachers generally are a well-satisfied group, so much so that individual boards of education should be alarmed if there is great unrest among members of the teaching staff. Prejudice toward teaching grows out of its bad history. It is folly to try to persuade or cajole young people into teaching. They themselves must recognize its advantages. "Oldmaidism" and pedantry are less associated with teaching than they used to be, but it must be entirely dispelled. The high esteem in which teaching is held must be clearly reflected in salaries paid. When these things are done, when elementary teaching has been made as attractive as possible, young people will flock to teaching in great numbers. Recruitment will cease to be a problem. Selection will be the matter of primary concern.

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